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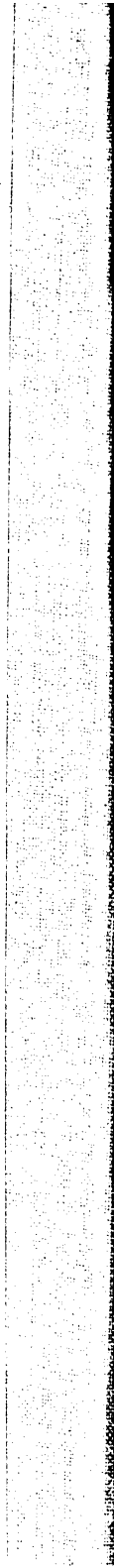
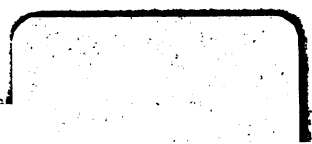
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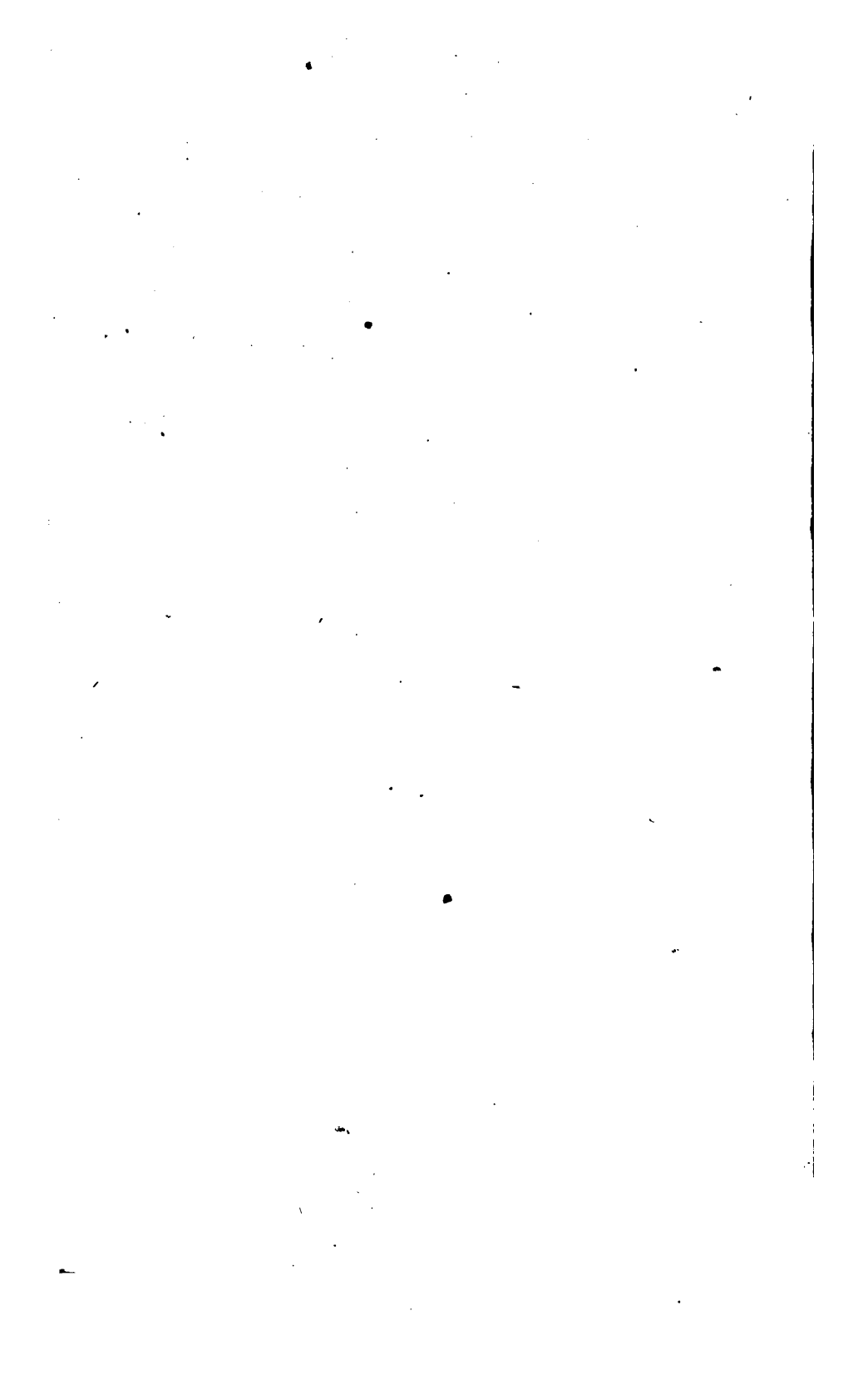


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HISTORY
OF
THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.



THE
HISTORY OF ENGLAND;

DURING
THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

DESIGNED AS A CONTINUATION OF HUME AND SMOLLETT.

By ROBERT SCOTT, Esq.

AUTHOR OF THE BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES IN 'THE CABINET OF PORTRAITS,' &c.

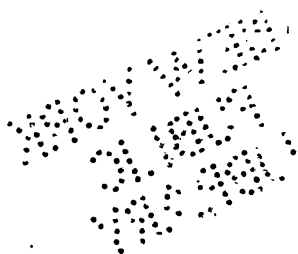
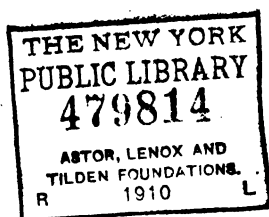
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HISTORY OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE THIRD.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE state of Europe at the commencement of the year 1806, may justly be said to be unexampled in the annals of history. The French and English nations had acquired not merely a decided preponderance, but an absolute and uncontrolled dominion, the one over the land, and the other over the sea. The battle of Austerlitz had confirmed the military superiority of France, and left her without a rival on the continent; while the victory of Trafalgar had no less decided the naval pre-eminence of England: she was, however, unable to make any serious impression on the power of Buonaparte, who, after the treaty of Presburg, no longer deterred by the fear of a continental coalition, was at liberty to direct his whole force and energy to her subjugation. If Great Britain had nothing to apprehend from the number of troops Buonaparte might be able to land on the shores of England, other parts of the empire were not equally invulnerable to his attacks. In Ireland, exposed by her grievances to the seduction of his emissaries, and accessible by her situation to the in-

vasion of his army, rebellion had been put down, but discontent still existed: the fire, which had lately blazed with such fury, was smothered, but not extinguished; and though the more moderate of the Catholics were ready to postpone the discussion of their claims till the chief obstacle to the redress of their grievances was removed, and the prudent and considerate were disinclined to those violent counsels from which they had already suffered so much; it was not to be supposed that all the Irish Catholics were moderate and prudent, but that many of that body would join themselves to a French army whenever it might make its appearance in their country.

Affairs were in this posture when Parliament met on the 21st of January; and as the state of the King's sight did not permit him to deliver his speech from the throne, that assembly was opened by commission. After suitable congratulations on the splendour of the late naval successes, mixed with regret for the lamented death of the hero by whom they were achieved, the speech, which was read by the lord-chancellor, stated that his Majesty had directed the treaties concluded with foreign powers to be laid before Parliament; and while he lamented the late disastrous events on the continent, he congratulated the two Houses on the assurances which he continued to receive from the Emperor of Russia, of that monarch's determination to adhere to his alliance with Britain. It further stated that 1,000,000*l.* sterling, accruing to the crown from the droits of Admiralty, would be applied to the public service of the year; and concluded by recommending vigilance and exertion against the enemy, as by such means alone the present contest could be brought to a happy consummation. An amendment to the address was read in both Houses, but was not

proposed as a motion, on account of the dangerous indisposition of Mr. Pitt, who was at that moment on his death-bed.

This distinguished statesman had been compelled, at the close of the former session of Parliament, to relinquish all active share in public business, and retire to Bath, whence he returned, on the 11th of January, to his residence on Putney Heath, in a state of debility and exhaustion, augmented by anxiety and disappointment. His constitution, originally delicate, sunk rapidly, and on the 23d of January he expired, in the 47th year of his age, after having enjoyed greater power and popularity, and held the first place in the government of his country for a longer course of years, than any former minister of England. On a motion of the Hon. Henry Lascelles, made in the House of Commons on the 27th of January, and carried by a majority of 258 to 89, his remains were interred at the public expense in Westminster Abbey, by the side of his father. A sum not exceeding 40,000*l.* was voted for the payment of his debts without opposition.

Mr. Pitt possessed no particular advantages of person or physiognomy; but as a speaker he was thought to be without a rival. Such were the happy choice of his words, the judicious arrangement of his subject, and the fascinating effect of a perennial eloquence, that his wonderful powers were acknowledged even by those who were prepossessed against his arguments. His integrity was unimpeached; his conduct strictly moral; and so far was he from making use of his opportunities to acquire wealth, that he died insolvent. As a financier he displayed great ability in augmenting the public revenue, and in raising money on public faith; but whilst he was thus adding

to be burthens of the people, and entailing a heavy load on posterity, the wealth so acquired was distributed with lavish profusion. Such was his dread of the revolutionary principles which desolated France, that, considering no price too great for the means of opposing them, he carried the practice of subsidizing foreign states to an unprecedented and almost ruinous extent. But whatever may have been his errors, his exertions in the public service during a period of unexampled difficulty were unwearied, and the emphatic words pronounced by the herald over his corpse, "*non sibi sed patriæ vixit*," were not less just than honourable.

Either from confidence in his own powers, or from the love of sway, Mr. Pitt seldom associated himself with men of superior talent, and his death at this critical juncture was considered as a virtual dissolution of the existing administration. His colleagues were men of little comparative weight or consideration in the country, and besides the want of public confidence, they were disunited and without a head. No sooner had the loss of their patron dissolved the only tie that bound them, than symptoms of disunion began to appear in their ranks; and it contributed not a little to the dispersion of the party, that while many competitors presented themselves for the place of leader, there was no one so pre-eminent for his station or abilities, as to be raised by general consent to that distinguished situation. In circumstances so discouraging, it is not wonderful that the surviving members of Mr. Pitt's administration resigned to their opponents the reins of government without a struggle, and even refused to retain charge of them, when urged to that duty by the solicitations of the court. Lord Hawkesbury was offered the post of premier, but he

deemed it too arduous, and on retiring from office received the wardenship of the Cinque ports.

Every attempt to form an administration from the wreck of the late cabinet proving unsuccessful, his Majesty called in the assistance of Lord Grenville, and on the 3d of February the new ministerial arrangements were finally settled, embracing the leading members of the three parties designated by the appellation of the old and new opposition, and the Sidmouth party. The cabinet was composed of the following members: Earl Fitzwilliam, president of the council; Lord Erskine, lord-chancellor; Viscount Sidmouth, lord privy-seal; Lord Grenville, first lord of the treasury; Lord Howick (late Mr. Grey) first lord of the admiralty; Earl Moira, master-general of the ordnance; Earl Spencer, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Windham, secretaries of state for the home, foreign, and war departments; and Lord Henry Petty, chancellor of the exchequer. Lord chief-justice Ellenborough was also admitted to a seat in the cabinet. The Duke of Bedford went to Ireland as lord-lieutenant, accompanied by Mr. Elliot as chief secretary. Mr. George Ponsonby was appointed chancellor and keeper of the seals in Ireland, and Sir John Newport, chancellor of the Irish exchequer; Lord Minto was appointed president of the board of controul; Mr. Sheridan, treasurer of the navy; General Fitzpatrick, secretary at war; Sir Arthur Pigott and Sir Samuel Romilly, attorney and solicitor-general. Numerous other appointments took place in the subordinate offices of government; and so complete a change in all the departments of the state had not been effected since the commencement of Mr. Pitt's first administration.

Lord Grenville's holding the office of auditor of the exchequer, which is incompatible with that of first

lord of the treasury, rendered it necessary to bring a bill into Parliament, to enable him to accept the latter office, without forfeiting the former; and, to palliate the objections that might be made to this equivocal union, Lord Grenville was empowered to name a trustee to hold the office of auditor, so long as his lordship should continue in the situation of first lord of the treasury; which trustee should be responsible to the auditor for the salary, and to the public for the due execution of his office. The appointment of Lord Ellenborough to a seat in the cabinet, a measure of still more doubtful policy, was brought before the Lords on the 3d of March, when the Earl of Bristol moved a resolution, stating it to be the opinion of that House, that it was highly inexpedient, and tended to weaken the administration of justice, to summon to any committee, or assembly of the privy-council, any of the judges of his Majesty's courts of common law. This motion was negatived without a division, and a similar resolution was lost in the Commons by 222 against 64.

On the 3d of April, Mr. Windham introduced the subject of his new military arrangements to the consideration of the House of Commons. Instead of an engagement to serve for life, he proposed that the soldiers in future should be enlisted for a term of years only; this term to be divided into three periods, of seven years each for the infantry; and for the cavalry and artillery, the first period to be ten, the second, six, and the third, five years. At the end of each period the soldier to have a right to claim his discharge, and be entitled to certain advantages proportioned to his length of service. Desertion might be punished by the loss of so many years' service, and though corporal punishments could not, he said, be en-

tirely banished from the army, they might be diminished both in number and severity. The volunteer corps sought only to be formed of persons who would serve at their own expense, and the peasantry should be loosely trained to harass and impede an enemy. This training he meant to be compulsory, and that a number not exceeding 200,000 men annually should be liable to that duty. The various bills necessary for effecting these arrangements were strongly opposed in every stage, but finally passed both Houses.

In finance ministers appeared satisfied with following the system of their predecessors. On the 28th of March the budget was opened by Lord Henry Petty, who stated the unredeemed national debt of Great Britain and Ireland at nearly 556,000,000*l.* and the redeemed at 127,000,000*l.* of which the annual charge was nearly 27,500,000*l.* The requisite supplies on account of Great Britain were estimated at 43,618,472*l.*; and among the proposed ways and means, the most considerable were a loan of 18,000,000*l.* and an augmentation of the war taxes to 19,500,000*l.* to be effected principally by raising the property tax from six and a half to ten *per cent.*, chargeable on all income above 50*l.* a-year, with a scale of abatements in favour of those below 100*l.* It was also proposed to raise the war duties on the customs, with certain modifications, from one-fourth to one-third. And in order to cover the interest of the loan, the duty on wine was to be made permanent, and 2*l.* per ton imposed on pig-iron; the duty on tea was to be equalized; and a tax on appraisements imposed. The noble lord concluded by declaring that the government should be administered with economy, and all abuses, wherever they could be detected, reformed. The property tax bill encountered great opposition from the independent

members, who disliked the harshness and rigour of the proposed enactments, and disapproved of such an enormous addition to the present heavy burthens of the people. Several modifications were accordingly proposed, to some of which the ministers acceded, but the greater part of them were rejected on account of their tendency to diminish the product, and impair the efficacy, of the measure. The proposed tax on iron excited such opposition that it was abandoned, and a tax on private brewers substituted; but this obnoxious impost raised a still greater and more general outcry, and the interest of the loan was provided for by an addition of ten *per cent.* to the assessed taxes. The budget for Ireland was opened by Sir John Newport, on the 7th of May, when it appeared that the supply voted for that country was 8,975,194*l.*; and the ways and means, including a loan of 2,000,000*l.* were estimated at 9,181,455*l.*

The prevention of abuses being the declared intention of ministers, some salutary regulations were adopted in various departments. The balances of the treasurer of the ordnance were ordered to be deposited at the Bank of England, and the payments to be made by drafts upon that establishment: the same principle was also extended to the excise and customs, to the stamp and post offices, and to the office of surveyor-general of the woods and forests: an act was passed for increasing the salaries, and abolishing the fees of the custom-house officers of the port of London; and judicious measures were adopted for expediting and securing the regular settlement of public accounts.

The corn trade between Great Britain and Ireland was placed on the same footing as that between the different counties of England, by an act which judi-

ciously allowed the free interchange of grain without any bounty or duty, or any restraint whatever. An act was also passed for regulating the intercourse between the West Indies and the United States, which vested a discretionary power in his Majesty to permit, under certain restrictions, the trade in lumber and provisions carried on by neutrals with the British colonies, with the proviso, that no commodities, staves and lumber only excepted, should be imported, which were not of the growth and produce of the countries to which the neutral vessels belonged, and that they should not export the indigenous products of the colonies.

The abolition of the slave trade, which had for so many years engrossed the attention of the friends of humanity in this country, which had been supported by the eloquence of the late prime minister whenever it was brought before Parliament, but had as constantly been defeated by the prevalence of interests which, as minister, he did not choose to oppose, was pursued by the new administration with so much earnestness, that in the present session considerable progress was made towards its accomplishment. A bill was brought in by the attorney-general, which passed without any formidable opposition, prohibiting the exportation of slaves from the British colonies after the 1st of January, 1807, and interdicting all subjects of this country from being in any way accessory to the supply of foreign countries with slaves after that period. Another bill soon after passed without opposition, for the purpose of preventing the increase of the British slave-trade, by prohibiting any vessels from embarking in that traffic which were not already employed therein. The next measure was a resolution moved by Mr. Fox in the House of Com-

more on the 10th of June, and which, being his last motion in that House, may be said to have closed the parliamentary career of that great statesman. The words of the resolution were, "that this House, conceiving the African slave-trade to be contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy, will, with all practicable expedition, take effectual measures for abolishing the said trade, in such manner and at such period as may be deemed advisable." In his speech on this occasion he declared that he was so fully impressed with the vast importance and necessity of attaining the object of his motion, that if, during the almost forty years that he had enjoyed the honour of a seat in Parliament, he had been so fortunate as to accomplish that, and that only, he should think that he had done enough, and could retire from public life with the conscious satisfaction that he had done his duty. The motion was opposed by Lord Castlereagh, the members for Liverpool, and a few in the West India interest; but on a division, there were only 15 against 114 who supported it, leaving a majority of 99 in favour of the abolition. The resolution was then sent up to the Lords, and a conference demanded; after which the same resolution was adopted, on the motion of Lord Grenville, by 41 against 20. The last step taken on this subject, during the present session, was a joint address from the two Houses, beseeching his Majesty to take such measures as might appear most effectual for obtaining, by negotiation, the concurrence and concert of foreign powers in the abolition of the slave trade, and the execution of the regulations adopted for that purpose.

The trial of Lord Melville next engaged the attention of Parliament, and excited considerable interest in the public mind. The House of Commons, having

deliberately resolved to exercise its power of impeachment against this nobleman, managers were duly appointed; Westminster Hall was fitted up in a style worthy of the solemnity; and on the 29th of April the court was opened with the usual forms. The articles, which were ten in number, contained three principal charges. The first was, that before the 10th of January, 1786, he had applied to his private use and profit various sums of public money intrusted to him as treasurer of the navy. The second was, that in violation of the act of Parliament, for better regulating that office, he had permitted Trotter, his paymaster, illegally to take from the Bank of England, large sums of the money issued on account of the treasurer of the navy, and to place those sums in the hands of his private banker, in his own name, and subject to his sole controul and disposition. The third was, that he had fraudulently and corruptly permitted Trotter to apply the said money to purposes of private use and emolument, and had himself fraudulently and corruptly derived profit therefrom. In reply to the respective charges, Lord Melville averred that he was not guilty, when Mr. Whitbread addressed the court in an elaborate speech, which embraced the topics so successfully enforced in the House of Commons, when the tenth Report of the Commissioners of Naval Inquiry was first brought under consideration; and Sir Samuel Romilly, the solicitor-general, recapitulated the evidence. The counsel for Lord Melville occupied three days in the defence; on the two following days the managers delivered their reply on the part of the Commons, the legal argument being conducted by the attorney-general, and the observations on the defence being left to Mr. Whitbread; and as the evidence, which was very voluminous, was

not printed, the further proceedings were deferred till the 28th of May. A motion of thanks to the managers was made on the 23d, in the Commons, by General Fitzpatrick, and agreed to with only one dissentient voice. At the appointed period the peers assembled in their chamber of Parliament; the assistance of the judges on certain points of law was resorted to; and on the 12th of June their lordships proceeded to deliver their verdict. The result was, that his lordship was acquitted of all the charges, but on four of the articles the majority in his favour did not amount to double the number of those who gave a contrary judgment. The whole number of peers voting was 135, and, considering the nature of the proceeding, the trial was conducted with unusual dispatch.

Various discussions arose during this session respecting the affairs of India. The budget was produced on the 10th of July, when it appeared that the charge exceeded the revenue by 2,851,745*l.*; that a great diminution had taken place in the annual account, and that the debts in India might be estimated at 30,000,000*l.*, of which 17,000,000*l.* were payable in England, at the option of the holders of the securities. On the 23d of July, after a long and busy session, Parliament was prorogued by commission.

From the moment of their entrance upon office, ministers appear to have formed the resolution of directing their views to the accomplishment of a peace with France. In February, a project for assassinating Buonaparte was communicated by a foreigner to Mr. Fox, who immediately sent a statement of the circumstances to M. Talleyrand. The French minister, in reply to this letter, took occasion to introduce, unofficially, an extract from Buonaparte's speech to the

legislative body, expressive of his wish for peace with England, and his readiness to negotiate, without a moment's delay, agreeably to the treaty of Amiens. Mr. Fox considered this communication as a distinct overture, and proceeded to answer it in that frank and direct style which is the characteristic of all his public dispatches. He objected to the uncertainty of the basis of Amiens; the variety of modes in which it had been interpreted; and the delay which the explanations on the meaning of it would unavoidably occasion, even if no other objection should exist. The true basis of such a negotiation, he observed, between two great powers, equally despising every idea of chicane, would be the reciprocal recognition of the principle, that the object of both parties should be a peace, honourable for both, and for their respective allies, and, at the same time, of a nature to secure, as far as in their power, the future tranquillity of Europe. He then stated the impossibility of treating, much less of concluding any treaty, unless in concert with Russia, but suggested the practicability of some previous discussion of the principal points, and some provisional arrangements, while they were waiting for the actual intervention of that power. A correspondence of some length ensued, in which M. Talleyrand endeavoured to represent Russia as interposing its authority between two nations fully competent to adjust their own differences; Mr. Fox, however, insisted on her being a party in question, as an ally of Great Britain whose interests were inseparably connected with her own, and to bring the discussion to a point, he stated explicitly, that his Majesty was willing to negotiate conjointly with Russia, but not separately, to which M. Talleyrand re-urged the former objections, and thus the correspondence closed.

Early in June, however, Lord Yarmouth, son of the Marquis of Hertford, who had been among those detained in France at the commencement of hostilities, arrived in London, and communicated the substance of a conversation with M. Talleyrand, which had passed at the desire of that minister, for the purpose of conveying, through a confidential channel, the sentiments and views of France, and the outlines of the terms on which peace might be restored between the two countries. Three specific offers were held out as inducements to Great Britain to treat; *viz.* the restoration of Hanover, the possession of Sicily, as a consequence of the principle of the *uti possidetis*, and a facility in the arrangement of the form of treating, which, without recognising the claim of a joint negotiation, would not impair the advantages which Great Britain and Russia might derive from their alliance. M. Talleyrand, in the first interview with Lord Yarmouth after his return to Paris, not only departed entirely from his clear and explicit offer of Sicily, but indulged himself in vain allusions to further demands, and in peremptory representations of the necessity of negotiating with some persons duly authorized and empowered to treat. This first deviation from the original overtures was received by the British ministry as an omen of the failure of the negotiation, and as an indication of the little reliance that could be placed on the sincerity of the French negotiators. Lord Yarmouth was therefore directed to insist generally on the recurrence to the original overtures, and to make the re-admission of Sicily the *sine quâ non* of the production of his full powers, which, to avoid all pretence of cavil, were conveyed to him without delay. In the mean time, the Russian plenipotentiary, M. D'Oubril, who had arrived at Paris on the 10th of July, had

signed a separate peace with the French government, and returned to St. Petersburg without communicating to Lord Yarmouth some of its most material articles. In this posture of affairs, Lord Lauderdale was dispatched to Paris. The health of Mr. Fox began at this period to decline, and the nomination of his personal friend, and tried political adherent, was a pledge that the cabinet continued to promote his views, and to consult the spirit of his policy.

The first endeavour of Lord Lauderdale was to bring back the French government to the basis of the *uti possidetis*, but the negociators, M. Champagny, minister of the interior, and General Clarke, constantly evaded the acknowledgment of having made that proposal; they contrived, however, under various pretences, to detain Lord Lauderdale at Paris, till it became the policy of Britain, as well as of France, to await the decision of the court of St. Petersburg, on the treaty which M. D'Oubril had carried thither for ratification. On the 3d of September, a courier brought the intelligence to Paris that the Emperor of Russia had refused to ratify it, and M. Talleyrand, with great apparent frankness, communicated this information to the British negociator the day after its arrival, and assured him that France was now prepared to make peace with England on more favourable terms than she otherwise would have been disposed to admit; but as it was soon obvious that the abandonment of Russia was to be the price, the British cabinet determined not to listen to any such projects. A series of unsatisfactory discussions ensued, which lasted until Buonaparte left Paris for the army on the Rhine, accompanied by Talleyrand, and one of the plenipotentiaries, General Clarke. M. Champagny, who remained to conduct the negocia-

tion, was neither authorized to relinquish the claims of Joseph Buonaparte upon Sicily, nor to acquiesce in such an arrangement as would have satisfied the court of St. Petersburg; the negotiation was therefore at an end, and Lord Lauderdale returned to England. His passports were accompanied by a note, insinuating that the principles of Mr. Fox had been abandoned by his colleagues and successors; to which Lord Lauderdale delivered a spirited reply.

That the English ministers were sincere in their desire for peace is unquestionable; but that the commercial part of the nation, at least, did not participate in this wish, is proved by the fact, that though the grounds upon which the discussion had broken off were unknown, the intelligence of Lord Lauderdale's departure from Paris was received at the Royal Exchange, in London, with triumphant shouts of applause.

Mr. Fox's accession to power, while labouring under indisposition, whatever political hopes it might excite, was a circumstance pregnant to himself with inconvenience and danger. The business of the House of Commons he was, in a few months, from his impaired health, obliged to abandon; but with this deduction from his harassing employments, the remainder pressed too heavily upon him, and it was not long before the most decided indications of dropsy appeared. After a series of increasing languors, this great man closed his connection with all mortal scenes at Chiswick, at the seat of the Duke of Devonshire, on the 13th of September, in the 58th year of his age. The public regret for his loss subdued for a time the conflicting prejudices of party, and an unanimous homage was paid to those great and amiable qualities which won the cordial affection of his friends, and the

generous admiration of his adversaries. His funeral, though performed at private expense, was attended by the most distinguished characters in the country, and an immense assemblage of the general population.

Mr. Fox, in person, was about the middle size, and, as he advanced in life, very corpulent. The independence of his mind, and frankness of his manners, were unalloyed by the smallest portion of asperity: he was the firm and consistent advocate of liberty, civil and religious; and the powerful and frequent application of his talents to popular purposes, procured him the general appellation of "the man of the people." As a public speaker, his manner was not graceful, but it was peculiarly animated and impressive: his merit as a parliamentary debater did not consist in the length, variety, or roundness, of his periods, but in the truth and vigour of his conceptions, in the depth and extent of his information, in the retentive powers of his memory, in the faculty of spreading out his matter so clearly to the grasp of his own mind, as to render it impossible that he should ever fail in the utmost clearness and distinctness to others, and in the exuberant fertility of his invention, which spontaneously brought forth his ideas at the moment, in every possible shape by which the understanding might sit in the most accurate judgment upon them. As a minister, he displayed the same noble simplicity and plain dealing which characterized his conduct in private life. Peace was the darling wish of his heart, though he would have scorned to purchase that blessing by the slightest sacrifice of national honour. Having commenced a negotiation, he was spared the pain of seeing the intricate policy of modern times triumph over his favourite object, and with the satisfaction of leaving the old associates of his public

career in the employment of the state, and in the consequent possession of rewards and honours, "I die happy" were nearly the last words he uttered.

On the death of Mr. Fox, Lord Howick was appointed to the foreign office, in the situation of his departed friend; Mr. Grenville, first lord of the admiralty, in the place of Lord Howick; Mr. Tierney, president of the board of controul, in the place of Mr. Grenville, who had succeeded to that office, with a seat in the cabinet, on the appointment of Lord Minto to the government of India; Lord Sidmouth to succeed to the presidency of the council, from which Earl Fitzwilliam, on account of ill health, was desirous to withdraw; and Lord Holland, the nephew of Mr. Fox, to succeed Lord Sidmouth, as lord privy-seal. A dissolution of Parliament, after a remarkably short duration, immediately and unexpectedly followed; and though the returns to the new one were such as to add to the weight and influence of the friends of administration in the House of Commons, the experiment was not, on the whole, attended with much success.

At the close of the preceding year, Admiral Villeneuve, accompanied by Jerome Buonaparte, succeeded in escaping from port, with eleven sail of the line, and a number of frigates. After continuing in company for ten days, the fleet separated into two squadrons, one of which, consisting of five ships of the line, two frigates, and a corvette, under the command of Admiral Le Seigle, steered for St. Domingo, where a body of troops and a supply of ammunition were disembarked for the use of the colony. On the 6th of February, Admiral Sir J. T. Duckworth, with seven ships of the line, and four frigates, discovered the enemy to windward of Ocoa bay, and, after a furious

action, three ships of the line struck; the other two were driven on shore and burnt; and the smaller vessels got off. The other squadron of Villamez, amounting to six sail of the line, with three frigates, was originally destined for the Cape of Good Hope, but having been informed of the capture of that settlement by the English, they steered first to the coast of Brazil, and afterwards to the West Indies. In June, Admiral Cochrane, who had only four sail of the line and three frigates, discovered them near Barbadoes, but did not consider it safe to hazard an engagement with such a disparity of force; their ruin, however, was soon after accomplished by the fury of the elements, being separated by a tremendous gale of wind on the 18th of August. The French admiral's vessel reached the Havannah with extreme difficulty, three were destroyed on the American coast, another escaped into Brest, and the *Veteran* 74, commanded by Jerome Buonaparte, was stranded on the coast of Brittany. The captain and crew got on shore.

Admiral Linois had long carried on a predatory warfare in the Indian seas. The Isle of France had been the grand dépôt of the plunder he had collected, whence, in different bottoms, it had been transferred to France, and thither the admiral's ship, the *Maréngo* of 80 guns, and the *Belle Poule* of 40, were this year bending their course, having completed their levies on British property, and looking forward to the splendid enjoyment of the produce of their toil. These hopes, however, were frustrated by Sir J. B. Warren, with one of the squadrons which had been dispatched in pursuit of Jerome Buonaparte. On the morning of the 19th of March, the French ships were seen to windward, and, after a running fight of three

hours, were compelled to strike, thus affording some atonement for their depredations on our commerce.

Five large frigates and two corvettes, with troops on board for the West Indies, having, on the 24th of September, escaped from Rochefort, were on the following day met at sea by a British squadron under Sir Samuel Hood, who, after a running fight of several hours, captured four of them. The loss of the English was small, but Sir Samuel received a severe wound in the arm, which rendered amputation necessary. Several distinguished actions of a minor nature occurred in the course of the year.

An expedition against the Cape of Good Hope, consisting of about 5000 troops, under Sir David Baird, with a naval force, commanded by Sir Home Popham, sailed from England in August, 1805, and reached Table Bay on the 4th of January following, but it was found impossible to land nearer to Cape Town than Saldanha and Lospard's Bay. On the 8th the army moved forward, and, having ascended the summit of the Blaubeurg, or Blue Mountains, and dislodged the enemy's light troops, their main body, estimated at 5000 men, under the command of Lieutenant-general Janssens, was discovered in motion, to anticipate the approach of the British troops; their valour, however, bore down all opposition, and forced the Batavians to a precipitate retreat. The Governor-general, Janssens, retired with a body of forces to Hottentot's Holland Kloof, a pass leading to the district of Zwelendam, and seemed disposed to maintain himself in the interior, but General Beresford having been sent against him, he was prevailed upon to surrender, on condition of his forces being conveyed to Holland at the expense of the British government, and not considered prisoners of war.

Sir Home Popham, who in 1804 had been appointed to confer with the insurgent General Miranda concerning his views on South America, had long entertained an idea that an expedition should be sent against the Spanish settlements on the Rio de la Plata; and having been successful at the Cape, he turned his thoughts to the conquest of Buenos Ayres, taking upon himself a high and extraordinary degree of responsibility. Having persuaded Sir David Baird to acquiesce in his plans, and obtained from that officer a small body of troops, under General Beresford, he sailed from the Cape about the middle of April, without leaving a single armed vessel to protect that colony from insult, and directed his course to St. Helena, where he obtained a small reinforcement to his little army, which, after all, did not exceed 1600 men, including marines. With this inadequate force he arrived at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, in the beginning of June, when it was debated whether an attack should be made on Buenos Ayres or Monte Video, and the former being preferred, the troops were removed from the line of battle ships into the transports and frigate that accompanied the expedition, in which, after surmounting with great skill and perseverance the difficulties of a most intricate navigation, they arrived before Buenos Ayres on the 24th of June; and next day disembarked without resistance at the Punta de Quilmes, about twelve miles from that city. A body of Spaniards, placed on the height at two miles distance, witnessed the landing of the British army without opposing it, and General Beresford having marched against them on the following morning, they fled with precipitation at the first fire, leaving behind them their artillery. No other difficulty occurred after this success, except the passage of a

river, which it was necessary to cross before getting to Buenos Ayres; but this being effected with the help of rafts and boats, the bridge having been burnt by the enemy, General Beresford entered the city on the 27th, the viceroy having previously fled to Cordova with the small body of troops under his command. While the army was thus employed, the line of battle ships of the squadron made demonstrations before Monte Video and Maldonado, in order to alarm and occupy the garrisons of these places, in which were stationed the regular troops of the colony, while the defence of Buenos Ayres, supposed, from its situation, to be less liable to attack, had been committed to the militia. Favourable terms of capitulation were granted to the inhabitants, and the property of individuals on shore was respected, but a great booty was made of the public money and commodities, and of the shipping in the river.

Elated with his success, Sir Home Popham sent a circular letter to the principal commercial towns in Great Britain, expatiating on the advantages likely to accrue to their trade from this conquest, and the intelligence was received with the highest exultation. The rage for commercial enterprise, always easily excited in England, now knew no bounds; articles were exported that had never been heard of in the country to which they were destined, and were utterly unsuited to the customs or wants of the inhabitants; and the failure of speculations thus absurdly entered into, drew down much censure upon the author.

When intelligence reached government of Sir Home Popham's unauthorized departure from the Cape, and meditated invasion of South America, orders were instantly dispatched to recal him, and put a stop to his expedition. These orders, however, were too late

to prevent it; and when the news of his success arrived, the strong objections to his plan were drowned in the universal joy at the fortunate result. A conquest which the government would not have made, it had not the resolution to abandon; or possibly, deceived by the ease with which the victory had been gained, it gave in to the popular delusion, and supposed that South America required only to be attacked, in order to be subdued. The British government seemed, as it were, bewildered as to the course they ought to take in the present state of Spanish America; and before the system proper to be followed with Buenos Ayres came to be discussed in the British cabinet, that settlement was recaptured.

The Spaniards were at first taken by surprise; but on recovering from their panic, they collected the few troops they had in the neighbourhood, under the direction of Liniers, a French colonel in the Spanish service, who crossed the river in a fog on the 4th of August, with about 1000 men, unobserved by the English cruisers. On the 12th a desperate action took place in the streets and great square of the town, in which the English were severely annoyed by a destructive fire from the windows and balconies of the houses, and were at last compelled to lay down their arms, and surrender themselves prisoners of war; but, contrary to the articles of capitulation, they were marched up the country. The loss of the English in this action amounted to 165 killed, wounded, and missing, besides 1800 made prisoners. Sir Home Popham continued to blockade the river with his squadron till the arrival of troops from the Cape of Good Hope, in the month of October, enabled him to attempt Monte Video; but finding it impossible for the ships to approach near enough to act, he was

obliged to desist. On the 29th a body of troops was landed at Maldonado, and the Spaniards having been driven from thence, and from the isle of Gorriti, the troops were encamped, and the ships anchored off the shore, waiting further reinforcements.

Lord Howick, on the 19th of December, announced the recal of Sir Home Popham, in terms of severe reprehension; and on the 17th of February following that officer arrived in London, when he was put under a formal arrest, preparatory to his being brought to trial by a court-martial, for acting without orders, and for leaving the Cape in an unprotected state. After an able defence, the court adjudged him to be severely reprimanded.

During these transactions on the Spanish main, the negroes of St. Domingo rose against Dessalines; and, having come upon him by surprise, put him to death—a catastrophe which he had merited by the cruelty and injustice of his government. His successor, Christophe, contented himself with the humbler title of Chief of the government of Hayti, and in that capacity issued a proclamation, distinguished for the liberality of its sentiments, opening to neutral nations the commerce of his dominions.

Differences had existed, for a considerable time, between the United States of America and Spain, arising out of the ill-defined boundaries of Louisiana, and the Spaniards had made inroads on the district of New Orleans and the Mississippi, even in those parts which had been expressly and unequivocally ceded to the United States. Some disputes between America and the English government also assumed an important character. The complaint of the United States involved three points: first, The practice of impressing British seamen found on board American merchant

vessels on the high seas; second, The violation of their rights, as neutrals, by seizing and condemning their merchantmen, though engaged in what they considered a lawful commerce; and third, The infringement of their maritime jurisdiction upon their own coasts. On the first point it was urged, that native Americans were impressed on pretence of their being Englishmen, and forced to serve in the British navy; and the public mind in the United States was inflamed with exaggerated reports, stating that thousands of their citizens were in this situation. The second ground of complaint arose from a desire on the part of the Americans, not only to trade with the colonies of a belligerent, in a manner that would not be allowed in a time of peace, but to become the carriers of their produce to the mother country; protecting it, at the same time, under their neutral flag. The third point, which merely required that the extent of their maritime jurisdiction should be defined, admitted of easy arrangement.

An amicable adjustment of these differences being equally desirable to both parties, a special mission was appointed to England, and conferences were opened in London by Lords Holland and Auckland on the part of Great Britain, and by Messrs. Monroe and Pinckney on that of America. After some deliberations respecting an efficient substitute for the practice of impressment, the latter consented, though in opposition to their instructions, to pass to the other subjects of negotiation, on receiving from Lords Holland and Auckland an official assurance that the right should be exercised with great caution, that care should be taken to preserve the citizens of the United States from molestation, and immediate redress afforded on representation of any injury sustained. On the

subject of intercourse with the colonies of the enemy, a rule was established for defining the difference between a continuous and an interrupted voyage; and it was expressly stipulated that on re-exportation there should remain, after the drawback, a duty to be paid of one *per cent. ad valorem*, on all European articles, and not less than two *per cent.* on colonial produce. The maritime jurisdiction of the United States was guaranteed, and some commercial stipulations were framed for the reciprocal advantage of the two countries; but the American president, Mr. Jefferson, refused to ratify the treaty.

The successes of the French arms against Austria proved particularly unfortunate for the King of Naples, who, by a treaty concluded at Paris on the 21st of September, 1805, engaged to remain neutral in the war between France and the allied powers, and to repel by force every encroachment on his neutrality: scarcely, however, had six weeks elapsed, when a squadron of English and Russian vessels were permitted to land a body of forces in Naples and its vicinity. This being considered by Buonaparte as an act of perfidy deserving the severest punishment, he issued a proclamation from his head-quarters at Vienna, on the morning after the signature of the treaty of Presburg, declaring that the Neapolitan dynasty had ceased to reign; and a French army, under Joseph Buonaparte, immediately marched into Naples in three divisions. On the 12th of February Capua was invested, and on the 13th that city, with Peschieri, Naples, and other fortresses, was surrendered by capitulation; Gaeta and another alone holding out. The triumphant entry of Joseph Buonaparte into the capital, to assume the sovereignty, was attended by those acclamations and addresses which can always be procured by power,

and the change was received with pretty general satisfaction. The heir-apparent retired into his dukedom of Calabria, where General Damas, a French emigrant, was endeavouring to organize a levy *en masse*; the province, however, was speedily reduced by General Regnier. Sir James Craig, with the English army, accompanied the royal family to Sicily, and established his head-quarters at Messina, where he remained till April, when ill-health compelled him to resign his command to Sir John Stuart, who was soon after intrusted, by his Sicilian Majesty, with the defence of the eastern coast from Melazzo to Cape Passaro.

While the disturbances were still subsisting, Sir Sidney Smith arrived at Palermo, and took the command of the English squadron destined for the defence of Sicily. After throwing succours into Gaeta, which was still gallantly defended by the Prince of Hesse Philipstal, he took possession of the isle of Capri, and proceeded along the coast, exciting alarm, and keeping up a communication with the Calabrese. The army continued at Messina till the end of June, when the English general, at the urgent solicitation of the court of Palermo, consented to employ a part of his force in Calabria, and accordingly embarked a body of about 4800 effective men, with which he landed, on the 1st of July, in the gulf of St. Eufemia, near the northern frontier of Lower Calabria. The French general, Regnier, made a rapid march from Reggio, uniting his detached corps as he advanced, and on the 3rd encamped at Maida, about ten miles distant from the English army, with a force nearly equal, and in daily expectation of reinforcements. Being determined to give battle without delay, Sir John Stuart advanced the next morning, and found the French in

a strong position below the village, their force augmented to 7000 men, the expected detachments having joined. Regnier, confident in his superiority of numbers, and affecting an unqualified contempt of the assailants, quitted his post, and descended to meet them on the plain. Surprised, but not dismayed, at the unexpected increase of his numbers, the English advanced with alacrity to the attack, and, after some firing, both sides prepared for close combat; but the French, astonished at the firmness displayed by the English, gave way when the bayonets began to cross, and in a short time were routed and dispersed with great slaughter. Their cavalry, in attempting to turn the left flank of the English, were thrown into disorder by an unexpected fire from the 20th regiment, which had the same morning landed from Messina, and came up at this critical juncture: the rout now became general, and the French precipitately abandoned the field, with the loss of about 700 killed and 1000 prisoners. The English had only 45 killed and 282 wounded. This brilliant action, though it did not lead to the recovery of Naples, preserved Sicily from invasion, and compelled the French to evacuate Upper and Lower Calabria, abandoning their cannon, stores, and ammunition. In their retreat they were harassed by the peasantry, on whom they retaliated by laying waste their villages; General Stuart, however, aware that his small force would be inadequate to the permanent defence of the country, retired with it to Sicily, leaving a garrison in the strong fort of Scylla. The fall of Gaeta, which took place soon after the battle of Maida, set at liberty a force of 16,000 men, which, in conjunction with the powerful army under Massena, who was sent to subdue the Calabrese, slowly effected that purpose, being resisted

by the irregular armed force called the *masse*, consisting of the most indigent and wretched of the Calabrian peasantry, led by desperadoes whom the Sicilian government had released from the galleys, to keep alive the insurrection.

The territory of Cattaro, in Dalmatia, which had been ceded by Austria to France in the treaty of Presburg, was to be occupied within six weeks after the ratification, but as the French functionaries did not arrive at the appointed time, a Russian agent persuaded the inhabitants that the Austrians would be justified in evacuating the place; and, encouraged by the arrival of a Russian ship of the line from Corfu, they prepared to occupy the forts, in conjunction with a band of Montenegrins. On the 4th of March the Austrian garrison resigned the place to the natives, who transferred it to the Russians, and the French compensated themselves by taking possession of Ragusa, where the Russians and Montenegrins besieged them, but were compelled to retire on the arrival of General Molitor with an army from Dalmatia. They were afterwards defeated by Marmont, but they retained possession of Cattaro and Castelnuovo.

The court of Prussia, which still vacillated greatly in its politics, issued a proclamation on the 27th of January, addressed to the inhabitants of Hanover, in which it was observed, that after the events which terminated in the peace of Presburg, the only means of preserving the country from the flames of war consisted in forming a convention with Buonaparte, in virtue of which the states of his Britannic Majesty in Germany were to be wholly occupied and governed by Prussia, till the return of peace. This proceeding called forth an official note from Mr. Fox, under date of the 17th of March, addressed to Baron Jacobi, the

Prussian minister in London, wherein he expressed the great anxiety felt by his Majesty at the manner in which possession had been taken of the electorate, and desired him explicitly to inform his court, that no convenience or political arrangement, much less any offer of equivalent or indemnity, would ever induce him to consent to its alienation. The disposition shown by Prussia to hold Hanover conditionally, did not, however, please Buonaparte, who dictated new terms; and another treaty was signed on the 15th of February, by which Prussia was bound not only to annex it to her dominions, but to exclude British vessels and commerce from her ports. A proclamation was accordingly issued by the court of Berlin, on the 28th of March, ordering the ports and rivers opening into the German ocean to be closed in the same manner as when Hanover was occupied by French troops: and on the 1st of April a patent appeared under the authority of the same monarch, formally annexing the electorate to his other dominions, on the pretence that, belonging to the Emperor Napoleon by right of conquest, it had been transferred to Prussia in consideration of the cession of three of her provinces to France. The indignity offered to Great Britain by these proceedings against her commerce demanded prompt retaliation: the rivers Ems, Weser, Elbe, and Trave were accordingly blockaded; a general embargo was laid on all Prussian vessels in British harbours; and the English mission at Berlin was recalled. These measures were announced to Parliament on the 21st of April, in a message which was answered by unanimous addresses of thanks from both Houses; and the strongest animadversions were directed against Prussia for her abject submission to the injustice and rapacity of the French ruler.

In addition to her war with England, the subser-
vency of Prussia to France involved her in hostilities
with Sweden. The troops of that power, who occu-
pied Luneburg on behalf of the King of England,
having opposed the entrance of the Prussians, were
compelled, after a slight resistance, to retreat into
Mecklenburg; on which the King of Sweden laid an
embargo upon all Prussian vessels in his harbours, and
issued an order, bearing date the 27th of April, for the
blockade of her ports in the Baltic. To counteract
these measures, Prussia prepared to expel the Swedish
troops from Pomerania, but before this design could
be carried into effect, a new revolution in her politics
took place, which gave a different direction to her
arms. The feelings of the Prussian nation were hos-
tile to France; and the Queen, young, beautiful, and
persuasive, indignant at the usurpations and insults of
Buenaparte, and jealous of her husband's honour and
reputation, joined in the same cause. The first public
act of the cabinet of St. Cloud, which gave serious
alarm to the court of Berlin, was the investiture of
Murat with the duchies of Berg and Cleves; the lat-
ter of which was one of the three provinces obtained
from Prussia in exchange for Hanover; the other two,
Anspach and Bayreuth, being transferred to the Elec-
tor of Bavaria for the duchy of Berg. But a deeper
and more sensible injury awaited the Prussian govern-
ment: while Laforest, the French resident at Berlin,
was urging the ministers of that court to persist in
the measures they had adopted for the retention of
Hanover, Lacchesini, the Prussian minister at Paris,
discovered that the French government had offered to
the King of Great Britain, the complete restitution
of the electoral dominions. Fortunately, however, as
Prussia then thought, the negotiation for peace be-

tween France and Russia, after preliminaries had been signed at Paris, was broken off by the refusal of the court of St. Petersburg to ratify the treaty concluded by M. D'Oubril. But this event, while it opened to Prussia the prospect of assistance, in case she should be driven to a war with France, disclosed to her further proof of the secret enmity of the cabinet of St. Cloud, and of its readiness to abandon her interests; it now appearing, for the first time, that during the negotiations at Paris between France and Russia, distinct hints had been given to M. D'Oubril, that if his court was desirous of annexing any part of Polish Prussia to its dominions, no opposition would be interposed by France against such a project.

The peace of Presburg had left the forms of the Germanic constitution entire: the residence of the French troops in Germany, however, in consequence of the protracted occupation of Cattaro by the Russians, matured a design suitable to the ambitious mind of Buonaparte, and seemed to suggest the establishment of a new confederation of princes, at the head of which he should himself be placed. This project was arranged with extraordinary promptitude; and on the 12th of July the act of confederation was executed at Paris, by princes and ministers, who were scarcely allowed time to read the deed to which they affixed their signatures. The members of this confederation were, the Emperor of the French, the Kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, the Archbishop of Ratisbon, the Elector of Baden, the Duke of Berg, the Landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, and several minor German princes, who, by the articles of the compact, separating themselves from the Germanic empire, appointed a diet to meet at Frankfort to manage their public concerns, and settle their differences;

and chose Buonaparte for their protector. They established among themselves a federal alliance, by which, if one of them engaged in a continental war, all the others were bound to take part in it, and to contribute their contingent of troops in the following proportions: France, 200,000; Bavaria, 30,000; Wirtemberg, 12,000; Baden, 8000; Berg, 5000; Darmstadt, 4000; Nassau, Hohenzollern, and others, 4000; making a total of 258,000 men. No member of the confederacy was to be dependent on any foreign power, or enter into any service but that of the confederated states and their allies; neither could he alienate any part of his dominions, except in their favour. Other German princes and states might be admitted into the confederacy whenever it should be found consistent with the general interest. A great number of petty princes and counts were deprived of their ancient rights of sovereignty, and these were transferred, without equivalent or indemnity, to the members of this federal union. The imperial city of Nuremberg was given to the King of Bavaria, and that of Frankfort on the Maine to the Archbishop of Ratisbon, formerly elector and arch-chancellor of the empire, and now prince primate of "the confederation of the Rhine."

The house of Austria, thus stripped of its honours, was compelled to lay down the title of Emperor of Germany, which, by a formal deed of renunciation, was resigned by Francis the Second, retaining only the more humble one of Emperor of Austria. The acquiescence of Prussia in these arrangements was purchased by the delusive hope that she would be permitted to form a confederation of states in the north of Germany, under her protection, as the confederation of the Rhine was under that of France; but, no

sooner had the submission of Austria been secured, than Prussia, whose meanness was despised, and whose assistance was no longer wanted, was told, that Buonaparte could not permit her to include the Hanseatic towns in her plan of a northern confederation, and that he was determined to take them under his own protection. He also declared, that as the wise sovereign who governed Saxony seemed unwilling to contract the new obligations which Prussia wished to impose on him, France could not see him enslaved, or forced to act against the interests of his people. The Elector of Hesse Cassel was invited to join the confederation of the Rhine, and the remaining possessions of the Prince of Orange, brother-in-law of the King of Prussia, were offered to him on that condition; but he rejected these tempting proposals, and a resolution was passed, by which he was cut off from access to part of his own states.

Buonaparte had no sooner abolished the name of republic in France, than he sought to extinguish that appellation in the other states of Europe. Amongst other transformations, his younger brother, Louis, was selected to be King of Holland, and unwillingly dragged from the gaieties of Paris, to rule over a laborious and impoverished people. The new constitution which accompanied the king had no guarantee but the will of its author, nor did he attempt to disguise that Holland, though governed by a separate king, was to be considered as virtually a province of France. He also strengthened his connection with Bavaria by procuring the union of a princess of that house with his stepson, Eugene Beauharnois, whom he adopted, as his successor in the kingdom of Italy. That his imperial state might be duly upheld by subordinate dignities, he created a number of duchies in

the countries conquered by France, and chiefly in Italy, which he conferred on the civil and military officers who had distinguished themselves in his service. Berthier was created Prince of Neufchatel; Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo; and Talleyrand, Prince of Benevento. Many of the marshals and generals were raised to the rank of dukes. Buonaparte's sister, Paulina, the wife of the Prince Borghese, received the principality of Guastalla; and his uncle, Cardinal Fesch, was appointed coadjutor and successor of the Archbishop of Ratisbon.

Whilst Buonaparte was carrying these projects into effect, the pressure of the French armies upon Germany was extreme, and a spirit of resistance was excited in a variety of publications, which soon attracted the notice of the French government. Orders were in consequence given for the apprehension of various booksellers in Franconia, Bavaria, and Suabia, among whom the fate of John Palm, a resident of Nuremberg, an imperial town of Germany, possessing laws and tribunals of its own, attracted particular notice. This person, the publisher of a pamphlet, intitled "Germany in the lowest state of degradation," was arrested by order of the French government, and dragged to Braunau, charged with the publication of a libel against the French emperor. A court-martial was immediately summoned, and, after sitting for three days, M. Palm was brought into court, when the evidence was read to him, and his defence heard; he was then ordered to withdraw, and the court sentenced him to be shot, which was carried into execution on the following day.

The discussions at length advanced to a point which left no prospect of friendly arrangement. The court of Berlin assumed a tone of firmness; the King of

Sweden was eager to cherish the prospect which seemed thus to be afforded of checking the power and aggrandisement of France; the Prussian vessels detained in the ports of Great Britain were speedily liberated; and Lord Morpeth was dispatched to Berlin, with offers of assistance and co-operation in the fourth coalition that was at this time forming against France. On the 24th of September Buonaparte quitted Paris, to join the armies: discussions, however, were continued; and even so late as the 5th of October, a dispatch was delivered from the Prussian outposts to the French army, which still afforded an opening for amicable adjustment. Within a few days after, a declaration, stating the grounds of the war, was published by the Prussian cabinet.

The French, who had for some time been concentrating their forces at Bamberg, advanced in three divisions; the right, under Marshals Ney and Soult, advanced upon Hof; the centre, under Murat, Bernadotte, and Davoust, marched towards Culmbach, and by way of Saalberg to Gerra; and the left, under Lannes and Augereau, to Saalfeld. The Prussian army, having its right under General Blucher, its centre commanded by the Duke of Brunswick, and its left by Prince Hohenlohe, had taken a strong position along the north of Frankfort on the Maine. The campaign opened on the 9th of October, when the French succeeded in turning the left of the Prussians, seized their magazines, and compelled them to retreat with considerable loss. On the 10th, the left wing of the French army, under Marshal Lannes, was equally successful at Saalfeld, where Prince Louis of Prussia, brother of Frederick-William, was killed. The main body of the Prussians occupied Eisenach, Gotha, Erfurt, and Weimar, and it was the intention of

the Duke of Brunswick, to whom, at the advanced age of 71, the chief command was confided, to have commenced hostilities by bearing down with his right wing upon Frankfort, his centre on Wurtzburg, and his left on Bamberg; the French, however, had by this time unexpectedly turned the extremity of his right wing, and gained the eastern bank of the Saal, occupying, within a very short period, Saalberg, Schleitz, and Gerra. Alarmed by these movements, which cut them off from their resources, and left them no alternative but to fight or starve, the arrangements of the Prussian army were immediately changed; the detachments which had been precipitately urged forward were recalled; and the head-quarters were removed to Auerstadt, in the vicinity of Jena; while General Ruchel occupied the position of Weimar.

On the morning of the 14th, after a fog which had prevailed for two hours began to dissipate, the two armies beheld each other within range of cannon-shot, and the great battle of Auerstadt or Jena commenced, in which 250,000 men, with 700 pieces of artillery, scattered death in every direction. The courage and discipline on each side were perhaps equal, but the military skill was greatly superior on the part of the French; and after a most dreadful conflict the Prussians were finally defeated in every quarter, and the king fled from the field with a small body of cavalry. Their loss in killed and wounded exceeded 20,000; from 30 to 40,000 were made prisoners; and 300 pieces of cannon, with immense magazines of military stores and provisions, were taken: among the prisoners were more than 20 generals; Marshal Mollendorf was wounded, and the Duke of Brunswick and General Ruchel were killed. The French acknowledged a loss, on their part, of from 4 to 5000 men;

the victory, however, was complete, and decided the fate of the campaign.

Various detached bodies which escaped on this fatal day were afterwards taken prisoners; and all the principal towns in the electorate of Brandenburg, though very strongly garrisoned, surrendered almost without resistance. Spandau and Stettin opened their gates on being invested, and Magdeburg, with a garrison of 22,000 men, capitulated to Ney, after a few bombs had been thrown into the city. Berlin was entered on the 25th. The King of Prussia retreated to Königsberg, where the last regiments he could muster, scarcely amounting to 50,000 men, awaited the arrival of whatever assistance might be afforded by Russia.

Buonaparte, whose policy it was to make a friend of the Elector of Saxony, dismissed 6000 of his troops on their parole immediately after the battle of Jena. The Elector of Hesse was, on the contrary, deprived of his dominions; as was the Duke of Brunswick. Mecklenburg was also taken possession of by the French; and Hanover was occupied by a detachment under the command of General Mortier. Fulda and Cassel were occupied by other corps of the French troops, and a perfect communication was opened and maintained with the grand army. The next object to be accomplished, and which was no sooner ordered than it was effected, was to take possession of Hamburg, where all British property was placed under sequestration; the merchants and bankers were required to exhibit their accounts, summary punishment, by martial law, being denounced against those who should make false returns; and the English who remained in the city were put under arrest.

These proceedings were the prelude to a decree issued by Buonaparte at Berlin on the 20th of No-

vember, which afterwards became so memorable under the designation of the "Berlin decree." This edict alleged that England had violated the laws of nations, in considering every individual belonging to a hostile state as an actual enemy, whether found on board vessels of merchandise, or otherwise engaged in commercial occupations; that she had extended her right of blockade beyond all reasonable limits—to places where, with all her naval superiority, it was impossible for her actually to maintain it; that the monstrous abuse of this right had no other object but to impede the communication between nations, and to aggrandize England by the ruin of the continent; that all those who dealt in English commodities upon the continent might, therefore, be justly regarded as her accomplices; and that, as it was a right conferred by the laws of nature and of nations, to oppose to an enemy the weapons he employs against his adversary, it was decreed, that till the English government should abandon this system, the British isles should be placed in a state of blockade, and all commerce and correspondence with her interdicted. This violent decree, and the apprehension of retaliatory measures on the part of England, occasioned great dismay in the commercial cities of the continent.

Immediately after the battle of Jena, the King of Prussia applied to Buonaparte for an armistice; and though this request was refused, he was encouraged to send a plenipotentiary to the head-quarters of the French army. Lucchesini, the Prussian negotiator, arrived at Berlin on the 22d of October, and found that Duroc had been named to discuss with him the terms of the proposed treaty. The situation of his Prussian Majesty became every day more desperate, and a very short time was sufficient to show that no

terms of peace, short of unconditional surrender, were to be obtained. An armistice was next proposed, and concluded on the 16th of November, but on terms so disadvantageous to Prussia, that the King refused to ratify the act of his minister, preferring rather to try still further the fortune of war.

The Russian General Bennigsen at length crossed the Vistula with 4000 men, and arrived at Warsaw on the 13th of November; but on receiving accurate information of the force opposed to him, he retired across the Vistula, destroying the bridge over that river. About the end of November the first division of the French army arrived at Warsaw, and a rapid movement cut off the communication of the Prussians with their allies, who experienced a series of reverses, which occasioned the commander-in-chief, General Kamenskoi, to retire to Ostrolenka. The command of the Russian army devolved on Bennigsen and Buxhoevden, the former being stationed at Pultusk, and the latter at Golomyn. They were both attacked on the 26th, and driven from their positions, after a loss, according to the French accounts, of 80 pieces of cannon, all their ammunition, and 12,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The French troops then went into cantonments, and Buonaparte returned to Warsaw.

The Prussian monarch, while these disastrous events were taking place, experienced the utmost suspense and embarrassment. His queen and family sought an asylum, first at Dantzic, and afterwards at Memel, where the death of one of the young princes was combined with other circumstances of affliction. Austria in the mean time preserved a prudent and cautious neutrality. The Emperor of Russia ordered a general armament in a certain proportion to the existing

population, according to which the force to be levied would exceed 600,000 men, who were, on any requisite emergency, to be ready to support the troops of the empire. Buonaparte, on the other hand, ordered perpetual levies from the interior of France to the seat of war, and an anticipated conscription for the ensuing year was put in requisition, to be trained and disciplined.

The operations of the army in Silesia were successfully conducted by Jerome Buonaparte. On the 8th of January, 1807, the city of Breslau, which had been for some time regularly besieged, surrendered, and its garrison, consisting of 5500 men, defiled before Prince Jerome as his prisoners of war. The other fortresses in Silesia were, in succession, rapidly invested and taken. In the mean time, the French armies were employed in prosecuting the sieges of Stralsund, Colberg, and Dantzic, the latter of which was of extreme importance.

Towards the end of January, Buonaparte quitted Warsaw, and joined his army. Various contests occurred early in February, and on the 8th, after much previous hard fighting, a general engagement took place at Eylau, between the French and Russians, in which, after a series of most sanguinary conflicts, continued throughout the entire day, both parties claimed the victory. The Russians, however, were compelled to retire behind the Pregel, and the French, after remaining some days on the field of battle, fell back on the Vistula. The havoc resulting from this dreadful contest occasioned great exertions to be made for reinforcements: the Emperor Alexander and the Archduke Constantine shortly joined the Russian army with upwards of 60,000 troops; and the efforts of Buonaparte to repair his loss, and accumu-

late a force equal to the great struggle which still remained, were unremitting.

The French army now bent its efforts with increased vigour against the fortress of Dantzic, which had been for some time invested; the bombardment began on the 24th of April, but it was not till the 27th of May that the garrison, reduced from 16,000 to 9000 men, marched out of the fortifications with all the honours of war, and were permitted to go where they pleased, engaging only not to serve against France for twelve months.

After Hamburg, Lubeck, and various other places, had in their turn become the victims of plunder, the corps of Mortier was ordered to proceed against Swedish Pomerania, and to co-operate with Lefebvre in the siege of Dantzic. The failure of Buonaparte's attempts to detach the King of Sweden from the confederacy, which had been such as would have succeeded with a man of less firmness than this young monarch, was in January followed by the seizure of Anclam; Grissewald was soon taken by the French troops; and Stralsund itself was invested. The Swedish army at Stralsund consisted of 13,000 Swedes, and 4000 Prussians: these the King was almost in daily expectation of seeing joined by a considerable British force, which might qualify him to take the field for active operations against the enemy, instead of confining himself within the walls of a fortress, and several thousand foreign troops, under a British commander, constituting the first division of the expected armament, were not long after landed in Rugen and Stralsund, but the arrival of these reinforcements produced no immediate interest.

The surrender of Dantzic added considerably to the disposable force of the French, but did not appear

to offer any immediate and effectual inducement to Buonaparte to quit his almost impregnable positions. Two mighty armies, however, nearly in view of each other, could not long remain inactive when the season was favourable to their operations; and as the confidence still entertained by each party prevented any successful attempts at negotiation, circumstances soon occurred which drew on an obstinate and decisive conflict. On the 5th and 6th of June the Russians again attacked the French lines, and were again repulsed. Buonaparte took upon himself the command of his whole army, and on the 10th offered battle at Heilsberg to the Russians, who abandoned their intrenchments, leaving their wounded and magazines at the disposal of the enemy. On the 14th was fought the sanguinary and decisive battle of Friedland, which the French classed among their most splendid victories. One of its immediate consequences was the capture of Königsberg, containing large stores of grain, and 160,000 English muskets, which had not yet been landed. The Russians retreated toward the Niemen, crossed that river at Tilsit, burned the bridge, and continued their march to the eastward. The Emperor Alexander and the King of Prussia, who had been there during the last three weeks, retired to Memel, that town and its territory being all that remained in the possession of the latter sovereign.

Buonaparte entered Tilsit on the 19th of June, on which day a suspension of hostilities was proposed by the Russian commander-in-chief, and on the 22d an armistice was concluded, by which it was agreed that there should be an immediate exchange of prisoners, and that plenipotentiaries should be instantly appointed to negotiate a peace. Three days afterwards an

interview took place on the Niemen, between the Emperor Alexander and Buonaparte: at one o'clock the latter, accompanied by a number of his generals, embarked on the banks of the Niemen in a boat prepared for the purpose, and proceeded to the middle of the river, where General Lariboissiere had caused a raft to be placed, and a pavilion erected upon it, close to which was another raft and pavilion for his Majesty's suite. At the same moment the Emperor Alexander set out from the right bank, accompanied by the Grand Duke Constantine, General Bennigsen, and a number of the principal officers of his staff. The two boats arrived at the same instant, and Buonaparte and the emperor embraced each other as soon as they set foot on the raft. They entered the saloon together, and remained there two hours. The conference having terminated, the parties embarked, each in his boat, and returned to the opposite shores.

While the preliminaries were negotiating, the town of Tilsit became the abode of the Emperor Alexander, the King of Prussia, and Buonaparte; and on the 7th of July the arrangements of pacification were completed. Prussia was deprived of all her territories on the left bank of the Elbe, and of all her Polish provinces, except those situated between Pomerania and the Newmarke, and ancient Prussia, to the north of the little river Netz. The Elector, now become the King, of Saxony, took also the title of Duke of Warsaw, and was to have free communication, by a military road through the Prussian territory, with his new dominions, which were to consist of Thorn, Warsaw, and the rest of Prussian Poland, except that part which is to the north of the Bug, and which, under the idea of establishing natural boundaries between Russia and the duchy of Warsaw, was incorporated

with the dominions of the Emperor Alexander. Dantzic was in future to be an independent town; East Friesland was added to the kingdom of Holland; a new dominion, under the designation of the kingdom of Westphalia, was formed of the provinces ceded by the Prussian monarch, and others in the possession of Buonaparte; the recognition of Jerome Buonaparte, as the sovereign of this new state, also of the Kings of Holland and Naples, and of all the present and future members of the confederation of the Rhine, was stipulated; Prussia consented to close her ports and become a party in the maritime war against England; the Emperor of Russia and Buonaparte mutually guaranteed to each other the integrity of their possessions, and of those of the other powers included in the treaty; and the offer of a mediation to effect a peace between France and England was accepted, on the condition that England should, within one month, admit this mediation. It was also stipulated that hostilities should immediately cease between Russia and the Ottoman Porte; and the Emperor of Russia agreed to accept the mediation of Buonaparte for the conclusion of peace between the two powers.

The King of Sweden refused to accede to the treaty of Tilsit, and attempted the defence of Pomerania; but being abandoned to his fate by his continental allies, his efforts were unavailing. He, however, succeeded in withdrawing his forces from Stralsund before the enemy was apprized of his intention, after which he crossed the Baltic and returned into Sweden.

Towards the close of the year 1806, war had been declared by Turkey against Russia; and to promote the success of the latter, and oblige the Turks to accede to terms of accommodation, by which a force would be released from this southern warfare, and

enabled to swell the Russian army in Poland, a British fleet, under the command of Sir J. T. Duckworth, advanced through the Dardanelles on the 19th of February, with orders to bombard Constantinople, if certain terms were not acceded to. In passing between Sestos and Abydos they sustained a heavy fire, which they retaliated very severely, and the Turkish squadron was driven on shore and burnt by Sir Sidney Smith. The English then anchored near the Prince's isles, about eight miles from Constantinople, and a proposal was made to spare the city on condition that the Turkish fleet should be surrendered, which was of course rejected, and defensive measures being pursued with the greatest activity, Sir J. T. Duckworth prepared for his departure while the passage of the Dardanelles was still practicable. On the 1st of March he repassed the castles, in which he sustained considerable loss, and thus, instead of producing accommodation between Russia and the Porte, a new power was added to the list of England's enemies. The British agents and settlers in the Turkish territories were exposed to considerable annoyance; the seizure and sequestration of English property at Smyrna, Salonica, and other places, were ordered by the Porte, with a promptitude which precluded all opportunity for precaution; the power of France over the divan became materially strengthened; and Sebastiani, the French ambassador at Constantinople, was consulted on almost every emergency. In this war between Russia and the Porte, the former, however, was generally successful; and, to add to the disasters of the Turks, an insurrection arose during its progress, owing to some new regulations in the dress and discipline of the troops, which terminated in the deposition of the Grand Seignior, Selim the Third,

and the proclamation of Mustapha the Fourth. By sea, the Russians were equally successful as by land ; and in an engagement between the Russian and Turkish fleets, fought on the 1st of July near the entrance to the Dardanelles, the latter, consisting of 11 sail of the line, was nearly annihilated.

The failure of the weak and injudicious attempt on Constantinople seemed, for a time, to have been in some degree compensated by the success of an expedition against another seat of the Ottoman power. On the 6th of March, a force of 5000 men, under the command of Major-general Mackenzie Fraser, sailed from Messina, and having effected a landing near Alexandria, speedily compelled that city to capitulate. Ulterior operations against Rosetta and Rhamanie were unsuccessful, and the troops retreated, fighting all the way, to Alexandria, where they remained till September, when General Fraser, unable, from want of reinforcements, to cope with the formidable force which the enemy had collected, entered into a negotiation, and having obtained the restoration of the British prisoners, consented to evacuate Egypt.

Some hopes were entertained that these reverses in the Mediterranean would be compensated by successes in South America. In October, 1806, ministers had sent out a reinforcement to the river Plate, under the command of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, and convoyed by Sir Charles Stirling, who was appointed to supersede Sir Home Popham in the naval command on that station. On arriving at Maldonado, Sir Samuel determined to attack the strong fortress of Monte Video, the key of the river Plate, and on the 18th of January the troops, amounting to about 4000 men, were landed near the place, and repulsed a superior force which had been ordered out to attack them. A

Battery was erected; which, though exposed to the incessant fire of the enemy, effected a practicable breach on the 2d of February, and orders were issued that the assault should be made next morning an hour before day-break. Meantime the enemy were on the alert, and had so barricaded the breach with hides, that the head of the assailing column could not in the darkness distinguish it from the untouched wall, and the men remained under a galling fire for a quarter of an hour, when it was at length discovered by Captain Renny, who fell gloriously as he mounted it; the gallant soldiers then rushed to it and forced their way into the town, overturning the cannon which had been placed at the head of the principal avenues, and clearing the batteries and the streets with their bayonets. By sun-rise all was in the possession of the British except the citadel, which made a show of resistance, but soon surrendered; and it is a circumstance highly to the credit of the troops, that early in the morning all was quiet, and the women were peaceably walking the streets.

When intelligence arrived in England of the recapture of Buenos Ayres by the Spaniards, orders were sent by a fast-sailing vessel to direct General Craufurd, who had been sent against Chili with 4200 men, accompanied by a naval force under Admiral Murray, to proceed with his armament to the river Plate. Conformably to these orders, which overtook him at the Cape of Good Hope in April, he sailed for his new destination, and on the 14th of June reached Monte Video, where he found General Whitelocke, who had arrived on the 9th of May from England, with a reinforcement of 1600 men, and to whom was intrusted the chief command of the British forces in South America, with orders to reduce the whole

province of Buenos Ayres. Having, after fatiguing marches, nearly surrounded the town, he ordered a general attack to be made on the 6th of July, each corps to enter by the streets opposite to it, and all with unloaded muskets. The service was executed with great intrepidity, but with a loss of 2500 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. No mode of attack could have been so ill adapted against a town consisting of flat-roofed houses, disposed in regular streets, intersecting each other at right angles. Volleys of grape-shot were poured on our columns in front and in flank as they advanced; and they were assailed also from the house-tops with hand-grenades and other destructive missiles. Sir Samuel Auchmuty succeeded in making himself master of the Plaza de Toros, where he took 82 pieces of cannon and an immense quantity of ammunition. General Craufurd with his brigade was cut off from all communication with the other columns, and obliged to surrender; as was also Lieutenant-colonel Duff, with a detachment under his command. On the following morning General Liniers addressed a letter to the British commander, offering to deliver up the prisoners taken on this occasion, and also those taken from General Beresford, on condition that the attack on the town should be discontinued, and that, within two months from that date, Monte Video, and the other stations on the river Plate, occupied by the English troops, should be evacuated. It was stated, in this dispatch, that the exasperation of the populace against the English prisoners was unbounded, and that if hostilities were continued, it would be impossible to ensure their safety. These terms were no sooner proposed than they were yielded to by the British general, who thus agreed not only to evacuate Buenos Ayres, but to deliver up

Monte Video, which was at that time well garrisoned, and was not in a state of siege. The conduct of General Whitelocke called forth the most severe reprehension; and on his return to England he was tried by a court-martial, cashiered, and declared totally unfit and unworthy to serve his Majesty in any military capacity whatever; a decision confirmed by the King and approved by the public. It was thought, however, that a censure was not less merited by those who had recommended for such an employment a man whose military reputation appears never to have entitled him to a trust of such importance.

Against these misfortunes the solitary acquisition of the Dutch island of Curaçao is to be recorded. On the 1st of January, 1807, the capture was effected by a squadron of four frigates, under the command of Captain Brisbane, who, in a very short time, and with inconsiderable loss, carried the forts by storm, and the shipping by boarding, when the island surrendered by capitulation, the garrison and crews of the ships of war remaining prisoners.

The tranquillity of British India was interrupted in July, 1806, by an insurrection of the sepoys or native troops in the pay of the company, who attacked the European barracks at Vellore, and massacred 164 men, besides officers, before they were quelled. Symptoms of disaffection appeared in other quarters, which it required the most prompt and vigorous measures to subdue. The origin of these discontents was a rumour which had been propagated among the sepoys, that it was the wish of the British government to convert them, by forcible means, to Christianity; and which was said to have been strengthened by an injudicious attempt to change their turban into a sort of helmet.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE new Parliament was opened by commission on the 15th of December, 1806, and the object of the royal speech was to prepare the nation for the awful crisis then impending, and to animate them to adequate exertions against the formidable and increasing power of the enemy. The address called forth various observations from Lord Hawkesbury and Mr. Canning, but was passed in both Houses without a division. On the 2d of January, 1807, the subject of the late negotiation with France for the restoration of a general peace was brought under the consideration of the House of Peers, by Lord Grenville, who, after an elaborate exposition of the course pursued by government, moved an address to his Majesty, lamenting that his pacific endeavours should have been frustrated, and assuring him of cordial support and assistance in any future measures, either to attain the restoration of peace, or to meet the exigencies of war. Lords Hawkesbury and Eldon concurred in the leading points of the address, but contended that there was no proof that the French government had agreed to proceed on the basis of the *uti possidetis*. They most heartily acquiesced in the result of the negotiation, and, with this exception, joined in the address, which was carried *nem. con*. On the 5th of January the same subject was brought under discussion in the Commons, on the motion of Lord Howick, when Mr. Whitbread moved an amendment, assuring his Majesty of their firm co-operation in the vigorous prosecution of the war, and praying that he will afford every facility to any just arrangement by which the blessing of peace may be restored. This amendment was afterwards withdrawn, and the address

was carried without a division. On this occasion Mr. Canning condemned the policy of rupture with Prussia for the sake of Hanover. Prussia had, in the first instance, accepted the transfer of that electorate from France, on the condition that the possession should not be considered as valid until a general peace should be concluded, or until the consent of the King of Great Britain should be obtained. Buonaparte acquiesced for a time; but no sooner was he relieved from anxiety respecting the Russian armies, than he insisted that the occupation should be no longer provisional, but absolute. Prussia had then no choice but war, or compliance at the risk of war with England: she saw this risk, but could not avoid it; and we fell into the snare. Buonaparte had apprehended the union of Prussia with the two great surviving powers of the confederacy, and wished to have her at his mercy. In the space of three months he beheld her at war with England, and England and Russia separately negotiating for peace. He found means to continue this state of things until the arrangements for the overthrow of Prussia were matured; then the farce was ended, and he hastened to the field of battle.

After providing for an augmentation of the sea and land forces, the attention of Parliament was directed to the improvement of the revenue, and on the 29th of January Lord Henry Petty, having stated the total amount of the supplies for the year 1807 at 40,527,065*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* and the ways and means at 41,100,000*l.* brought forward a permanent plan of finance, which professed to have for its object to provide the means of maintaining the honour and independence of the British empire during the necessary continuance of the war, without perceptibly increasing the burthens of the country, and with manifest benefit to the interest of

the public creditor. This plan was adapted to meet a scale of expenditure nearly equal to that of 1806; and assumed that, during the war, the annual produce of the permanent and temporary revenue would continue equal to the produce of that year. Keeping these premises in view, it was proposed that the war loans for the years 1807, 1808, and 1809, should be 12,000,000*l.* annually; for 1810, 14,000,000*l.*; and for each of the ten following years, 16,000,000*l.* Those several loans, amounting in the fourteen years to 210,000,000*l.* were to be made a charge on the war taxes, which were estimated to produce 21,000,000*l.* annually: this charge to be at the rate of ten *per cent.* on each loan; five *per cent.* for interest, and the remainder as a sinking fund, which, at compound interest, would redeem any sum of capital debt in fourteen years. The portions of war taxes thus successively liberated, might, if the war should still be prolonged, become applicable in a revolving series, and be again pledged for new loans; it was, however, material, that the property tax should, in every case, cease on the 6th of April next after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace. In the result therefore of the whole measure, there would not be imposed any new taxes for the first three years from this time. New taxes of less than 300,000*l.* on an average of seven years, from 1810 to 1816, both inclusive, were all that would be necessary, in order to procure for the country the full benefit and advantage of the plan here described, which would continue for twenty years; during the last ten of which again no new taxes whatever would be required. After repeated discussions the plan was agreed to, and its effect was immediately obvious upon the funds, which advanced considerably, and gave the minister

an opportunity of negotiating a loan on terms highly advantageous to the public, and yet not unproductive to the contractors.

During this session of Parliament the total abolition of the African slave-trade was finally accomplished. On the 2d of January Lord Grenville introduced a bill for effecting this glorious object, which was read a first time, and printed. On the 4th of February, counsel were heard at the bar of the House in favour of the continuance of the trade, and on the following day Lord Grenville concluded an elaborate speech on the subject, by moving the second reading of the bill, which was principally opposed by the Duke of Clarence, Earls Westmorland and St. Vincent, and Lords Sidmouth, Eldon, and Hawkesbury. At four o'clock in the morning the House divided, when there appeared for the motion 100, and against it 36 voices. On the 10th the bill was read a third time, and ordered to the Commons for the concurrence of that assembly. On the 23d Lord Howick moved for its commitment, when the opponents of this humane law were so much diminished that there appeared, on a division, for the question 283, and against it only 16 voices. The bill, which was debated with great animation in all its stages, enacted, that no vessel should clear out for slaves from any port within the British dominions after the 1st of May, 1807, and that no slave should be landed in the colonies after the 1st of March, 1808. On the 16th of March, on the motion of Lord Henry Petty, the bill was read a third time, and passed without a division. On the 18th the bill was carried to the Lords for their concurrence in some amendments, when Lord Grenville instantly moved that it should be printed, and taken into consideration on the 23d; on which day the alterations were agreed to. The

reason of this haste was, that his Majesty, displeased with the introduction of a bill for granting some concessions to Roman Catholic officers, had resolved to displace the existing administration. Though the bill had passed both Houses, there was an awful fear, lest it should not receive the royal assent before the ministry was dissolved. On the 25th of March, at half-past eleven o'clock in the morning, his Majesty's message was delivered to the different members of administration, commanding them to wait upon him, to deliver up the seals of their respective offices. It then appeared, that a commission for the royal assent to this bill, among others, had been obtained. This commission was instantly opened by the lord-chancellor (Erskine), and as the clock struck twelve, this important bill became, after a struggle of twenty years, a part of the law of the land! Thus did Great Britain set an example to the world which neither the philanthropists of the French republic, nor those of the United States of America, had been sufficiently magnanimous to exhibit.

This victory of disinterested humanity over sordid cruelty, was followed by an attempt to procure the emancipation of the slaves already bought, the obvious injustice of which was admitted by Mr. Wilberforce, of whose unvaried exertions in this great cause, the cause of the weak against the strong, it is impossible to speak in terms of sufficient commendation. On the final debate he was complimented by various speakers, but more particularly by the solicitor-general, Sir Samuel Romilly, who observed that when he looked at the man now at the head of the French monarchy, surrounded as he was with all the pomp of power, and all the pride of victory, distributing kingdoms to his family and principalities to his followers,

seeming, when he sat upon his throne, to have reached the pinnacle of earthly happiness; and when he followed that man into his closet, or to his bed, and considered the pangs with which his solitude must be tortured, and his repose banished, by the recollection of the blood he had spilled; and when he compared with those pangs of remorse the feelings that must accompany his honourable friend to his home after the vote of that night; when he should retire into the bosom of his happy and delighted family; when he should lay himself down on his bed, reflecting on the innumerable voices that would be raised in every quarter of the world to bless him: how much more pure and perfect felicity must he enjoy in the consciousness of having preserved so many nations of his fellow-creatures than the man with whom he had compared him, on the throne to which he had waded through oppression and slaughter!

The bill which occasioned the dismissal of ministers was brought into the House of Commons on the 5th of March, and was styled *the Roman Catholics' Army and Navy Service Bill*. Its object was to secure to all his Majesty's subjects the privilege of serving in the army and navy, upon their taking an oath prescribed by act of parliament, and for leaving to them, as far as convenience would admit, the free exercise of their respective religions. Without having for its aim what was called the emancipation of the Catholics, this bill was adapted to afford them great satisfaction, being doubtless intended as the precursor of a system of enlarged toleration; it soon, however, became a matter of notoriety, that objections to the measure existed in a high quarter, the King regarding it as contrary to the obligations of his coronation oath, and, under such circumstances, ministers imme-

diately abandoned it: but being also required to give a written obligation, pledging themselves never more to propose any thing connected with the Catholic question, they resisted the demand, as incompatible with their honour and duty. Some portion of irritation now operated on both sides; the breach had extended too far to admit of being closed; confidence was mutually impaired; and the necessary consequence, the resignation of ministers, almost immediately ensued.

The names of the new ministers were announced on the 25th of March, and the following were of the cabinet: Lord Eldon, chancellor; the Earl of Westmorland, privy-seal; the Duke of Portland, first lord of the treasury; Earl Camden, president of the council; Lord Mulgrave, first lord of the admiralty; Lord Chatham, master of the ordnance; Lord Hawkesbury, secretary for the home department; Mr. Canning, secretary for foreign affairs; Lord Castlereagh, secretary for the department of war and colonies; and Mr. Perceval, chancellor of the exchequer.

A trial of strength between the newly appointed and the late ministers speedily took place in the House of Commons, on a motion made by Mr. Brand, that it was contrary to the first duties of the confidential servants of the crown, to restrain themselves by any pledge, express or implied, from offering to the King any advice that the course of circumstances might render necessary. The majority in favour of the new ministers, in a House of 484 members, only amounted to 32; and Mr. Canning intimated, that in the event of administration finding any impediment from the number of their opponents, a dissolution of Parliament would be resorted to. This threat was soon after carried into effect; and on the 27th of

April, the session and the Parliament were brought to an end by a speech from the throne, in which the commissioners were charged to state, that his Majesty was anxious to recur to the sense of his people, while the events which had recently taken place were yet fresh in their recollection.

The other proceedings of this short session were but of secondary interest. A bill, introduced by Sir Samuel Romilly, for making the freehold estates of persons dying indebted, assets for the payment of simple contract debts, was thrown out on the third reading. Some progress was made in the measures instituted by Lord Grenville for improving the administration of justice in Scotland, by dividing the court of session into three chambers, of five judges each, and by extending the trial by jury to civil cases. A plan was proposed by Mr. Whitbread, for ameliorating the condition of the poor in England; but this measure, with some others, was interrupted in its progress by the dissolution, and in the new Parliament it was again taken into consideration: but though the bill passed through the House of Commons, it was doomed in the Lords to a fate which so enlightened a measure did not merit; being thrown out, on the 11th of August, on the motion of Lord Hawkesbury.

The general election which succeeded the dissolution of Parliament was, in many places, very violently contested, the cry of *No popery*, and *The church is in danger*, being used for political purposes; and so successfully was it exerted, that of the late ministry Mr. Thomas Grenville was the only Commoner in the cabinet who resumed his seat for the place he had before represented. The new Parliament assembled on the 22d of June, when Mr. Abbot was unanimously re-elected speaker of the House of Commons.

The King's speech, which was delivered by commission, stated that, since the events which led to the dissolution, he had received the warmest assurances of support in maintaining the just rights of the crown, and the true principles of the constitution; and amendments to the addresses were moved in both Houses, strongly censuring the measure of dissolving Parliament, and the reasons offered for its justification. In the Lords the address was carried by 100 against 67, and in the Commons by 350 to 155, being the fullest House ever known on a similar occasion, and thus the solidity of the present administration was fully established.

The first measure of importance was a new military plan, introduced by Lord Castlereagh, for increasing the regular army from the militia, and for supplying the deficiencies arising from such a transfer by a supplementary militia. Two bills were accordingly passed, through the operation of which it was calculated that 38,000 men would be added to the military force of the country. A bill was introduced by Sir Arthur Wellesley for suppressing insurrection in Ireland, and for preventing the disturbance of the peace in that country; and another bill was also passed to prevent improper persons from keeping arms, the necessity of these measures being admitted by Mr. Grattan. In the House of Lords a bill for preventing the grant of offices in reversion was negatived; but an address was carried in the Commons, on the motion of Mr. Baines, praying his Majesty not to make any such grant until six weeks after the commencement of the ensuing session. On the 14th of August parliament was prorogued.

The efforts of Buonaparte to exclude the commerce of England from every part of the continent, and to

promote a maritime confederacy against her, rendered it certain that no power which he could controul would be permitted to enjoy a free trade, and having succeeded in closing the ports of Russia and Prussia against the British flag, Denmark became involved in a distressing dilemma. The Berlin decree of Buonaparte, and the British orders of council issued by way of counteraction, placed all inferior powers in a state of submission to the belligerents; and between the dread of France, to whom all her continental territories lay open, on the one hand, and of the English navy on the other, Denmark, though anxious rigidly to preserve her neutrality, was severely visited with the calamities of war. Persuaded that sooner or later she must be absorbed in that vortex of domination, from which nearly all the continental powers had been unable to extricate themselves, the British government dispatched to the Baltic an armament of 20,000 troops, under the command of Lieutenant-general Lord Cathcart, with a powerful fleet under Admiral Gambier, one of the lords of the admiralty. When the intelligence of this expedition first reached Copenhagen, it was universally supposed, in that city, that the English army was intended to co-operate with the Swedes in Pomerania; the illusion, however, was speedily dissipated by the arrival of Mr. Jackson in the Danish capital, early in August, with instructions to demand the delivery of the fleet into the possession of the British admiral, under a solemn stipulation that it should be restored at the conclusion of the war between England and France: but in case the prince-royal refused to comply, he was to be informed that the British commanders would forthwith proceed to hostilities. The prince argued upon the proposals made to him with dignity, and finally declared his

determination to reject them, and to adhere to the line of policy which he had hitherto pursued.

The English army landed without opposition on the 16th of August, and after some ineffectual attempts to impede its progress, Copenhagen was closely invested on the land side, the fleet forming an impenetrable blockade by sea. A proclamation was at the same time issued by the commanders, notifying to the inhabitants of Zealand the motives of their undertaking; the conduct that would be observed towards them; and an assurance that at any time when the demand of his Britannic Majesty should be acceded to, hostilities should cease. On the evening of the 2d of September, the land batteries, and the bomb and mortar vessels, opened a tremendous fire upon the town, and in a very short time a general conflagration appeared to have taken place. No proposals for capitulation being sent on the two ensuing days, the firing, which had been considerably slackened, was vigorously renewed on the evening of the 4th, and next morning the commandant of the garrison sent out a flag of truce. A capitulation having been settled on the 8th, the British army took possession of the citadel, dock-yards, and batteries, under an engagement of restoring them, and of evacuating the island of Zealand at the expiration of six weeks, or sooner if possible. The British admiral immediately began rigging and fitting out the ships that filled the spacious basons where they were laid up in ordinary, and at the expiration of the term limited in the capitulation, they were all, together with the stores, timber, and every article of naval equipment found in the arsenal and store-houses, conveyed to England, where, with the exception of one line of battle ship that grounded

on the isle of Huen, and was destroyed, they all arrived safely in the latter end of October.

Expectations were entertained on the part of the British government that harmony would be restored between the two nations, but the wound which had been inflicted was too deep to be instantly healed, and the English fleet had scarcely quitted the road of Copenhagen, when a number of small armed vessels commenced depredations on our traders in the Baltic with considerable success. British property was confiscated throughout the Danish dominions, and correspondence with England strictly prohibited. Under these circumstances, a declaration was published in justification of the motives which dictated the expedition, wherein it was stated that "his Majesty had received the most positive information of the determination of the ruler of France to occupy with a military force the territory of Holstein, for the purpose of excluding Great Britain from her accustomed channels of communication with the continent, or inducing or compelling the court of Denmark to close the passage of the Sound against British commerce and navigation, and of availing himself of the aid of the Danish marine for the invasion of Great Britain and Ireland;" and further, that "Holstein once occupied, Zealand would be at the mercy of France, and the navy of Denmark at her disposal." The measure adopted was therefore argued as an act of self-preservation.

The Emperor of Russia strongly resented the conduct of England towards Denmark, and as the treaty of Tilsit had already tended considerably to relax the bond of union between the courts of London and St. Petersburg, it was far from improbable that Russia

might soon join the league against that power with which she had so long, but so unsuccessfully, co-operated. Apprehension was at length converted into certainty; the British ambassador was ordered to leave St. Petersburg; and on the 31st of October a declaration of war was issued against England. The emperor proclaimed anew the principles of the armed neutrality, and engaged that there should be no re-establishment of peace between Russia and England until satisfaction should have been given to Denmark.

Buonaparte's efforts to exclude English commerce, and to establish his *continental system*, were this year continued with rigorous perseverance, and undiminished pressure. To embarrass the trade and finances of Great Britain, Europe was obliged, in a great degree, to abandon those luxuries which long habit had almost rendered necessary, and these restrictions were followed, on the part of England, by a system of retaliation, which deprived multitudes in France of the means of honest industry, and even of relief under disease and pain. The distress of the West India planters, in consequence of the exclusion of their produce from the usual markets, excited particular attention; and, to remedy this evil, a committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the most effectual means of affording them relief, recommended a decrease of duty upon colonial produce, an advance of bounty upon its importation, and the interruption of the intercourse carried on by American ships between the colonies of Cuba, Porto Rico, Martinique, and Guadaloupe, through the medium of the United States, to Europe. An order of council, issued on the 7th of January, which prohibited neutral vessels from trading to any port in the possession, or under the control of the enemy, not answering the

desired purpose, additional orders were issued on the 11th of November, declaring every port from which Great Britain was excluded to be in a state of blockade; all trade in the produce and manufactures of these countries was pronounced illegal; and the vessels employed therein were liable to seizure. Thus was the communication along the coasts of France and of her allies, by means of neutral vessels, completely prohibited; and though the Americans might still freely trade with the enemy's colonies for articles of their own consumption, the double restriction was imposed upon the intercourse by them between France and her colonies, of calling at a British port, and paying a British duty. To avoid the losses and hostilities which were to be apprehended from the measures respectively adopted by England and France, the American congress, on the 22d of December, resolved to lay a strict embargo on all the vessels of the United States, by which they were prohibited from quitting any of their ports; and ships from all other nations were commanded to leave the American harbours, with or without cargoes, as soon as the act was notified to them. This intelligence created a general feeling of alarm among commercial men; and the merchants of Liverpool, considering that this act of congress proceeded from our orders in council, petitioned for their speedy removal, but Parliament did not think proper to comply with their request. Buonaparte, aware that all restrictions on commerce would, from the situation and pursuits of England, fall upon this country with a much heavier pressure than on France, felt no disposition to relax in this new species of warfare; and accordingly, on the 23d of November, a decree was issued from Milan, enacting "that all vessels which, after having touched at England,

from any nation whatever, shall enter the ports of France, shall be seized and confiscated, as well as their cargoes, without exception or distinction of commodities or merchandise." This interdict was, on the 19th of the following month, succeeded by a rejoinder to the orders in council of the 11th of November, by which it was declared, that every neutral which submitted to be searched by an English ship, or paid any duty whatsoever to the English government, should be considered as thereby denationalized, and having forfeited the protection of its own government, should in consequence be liable to seizure as a lawful prize by French ships of war. Neutral powers were thus placed between confiscation and confiscation. If they proceeded to a French port, without first paying a duty upon their cargoes in England, they were liable to be captured by British cruisers; and if they came to England and paid the duty, they then became subject to confiscation in the ports of the enemy. The case was one of extreme hardship; and in this country, where war had not obliterated all sense of moral obligation, the justice and the policy of the orders in council underwent a severe scrutiny, and called forth the most animated discussions.

Whilst the orders of council increased the differences between Great Britain and the United States, an unfortunate occurrence created another ground of dispute. On the 23d of June an English man of war, the *Leopard*, Captain Humphries, acting under the orders of Admiral Berkeley, fell in with the Chesapeake American frigate off the Capes of Virginia, and demanded some British deserters, whom she was known to have on board. Her captain refusing to admit the search, the *Leopard* fired a broadside, which killed and wounded several of his men; after which

he struck his colours. In consequence of this transaction the President of the United States issued a proclamation, ordering the immediate departure of all British ships of war from the harbours and waters of the Union, and, in his message to congress on the 27th of October, relative to the pending negotiation with Great Britain, he stated that satisfaction had been demanded for the outrage. An investigation in the mean time took place at Halifax, and one of the deserters taken on board the *Chesapeak* was condemned by a court-martial and executed. The British ministry hesitated not to declare in Parliament their readiness to make every reparation for whatever might appear an unauthorized act of hostility ; and, in a proclamation issued for recalling British seamen, it was stated that force might, if necessary, be exercised for recovering deserters on board the merchant vessels of neutrals, but that, with respect to ships of war, a requisition only should be made. By this proclamation the conduct of Admiral Berkeley was tacitly disavowed, and Mr. Rose, the son of the Treasurer of the Navy, was soon after dispatched on a special mission to America, with overtures of conciliation ; which, however, proved abortive.

The Danish West India islands of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, surrendered in December, without resistance, to a squadron commanded by Sir Alexander Cochrane.

The designs of Buonaparte in the south of Europe gradually unfolded themselves. His armies entered Spain ; and, having marked Portugal for his prey, he publicly declared that the house of Braganza should cease to reign. A French force, under General Junot, entered Portugal, and, on the evening of the 26th of November, had reached Abrantes, within three days

march of Lisbon. At this alarming crisis, the Prince Regent, having hastily concerted his measures with Lord Strangford, the English minister at Lisbon, adopted the resolution of transferring the royal family and the seat of the Portuguese government to Brazil. No time having been left for delay, the embarkation was expeditiously performed; and, on the morning of the 29th, the Portuguese fleet, consisting of eight ships of the line, four frigates, three brigs and a schooner, sailed out of the Tagus, having on board the Prince of Brazil, with the whole of the royal family, and a number of persons attached to its fortunes. The French troops, who, from the heights in the vicinity of Lisbon, viewed the fleet as it dropped down the river, entered the city without opposition, and treated it as a conquest of the French arms. The migration of the Braganza family, which has no example in modern, and scarcely any in ancient history, was performed under the protection of the British navy, Sir Sydney Smith having accompanied the royal emigrants to Rio de Janeiro, where they arrived on the 9th of January, after a prosperous voyage; and a direct intercourse being thus established between England and Brazil, a new epoch was formed in the history of commerce. The valuable island of Madeira was committed by the Portuguese government to the protection of the British until the conclusion of a general peace.

A scene equally interesting and extraordinary now burst forth in Spain. After Buonaparte had, in the pretended character of a friend and ally, introduced his armies into that kingdom, the reigning monarch Charles the Fourth, perplexed and harassed by court intrigues, was induced or compelled to resign his crown to his son, the Prince of Asturias. The new

sovereign, Ferdinand the Seventh, with his father, the abdicated monarch, the whole of the royal family, and some of the principal grandees, were, in a mysterious manner, allured to take a journey to Bayonne, for the purpose of an interview with Buonaparte, who, having thus secured the two kings, obliged them to sign a formal abdication, and the infants Don Carlos and Don Antonio renounced all claim of succession to the Spanish crown. By the French, these abdications and renunciations were represented as voluntary acts; but by Spain, and the rest of Europe, they were contemplated in a very different light: an imperial decree, however, was issued, declaring the throne of Spain to be vacant, by the abdication of the reigning family; a Junta, composed of the partisans of France, was convened at Bayonne, and Buonaparte conferred the crown of Spain on his brother Joseph, who abdicated his kingdom of Naples in favour of the Grand Duke of Berg, Murat.

The circumstances of the time induced a belief that the new government would meet with little opposition: the French occupied all the strongest and most commanding positions, the main body of their army was stationed in Madrid, and all the principal cities and fortresses were garrisoned by their detachments. At that time the French could not have fewer than 100,000 troops in Spain, and 20,000 in Portugal; but notwithstanding the presence of so formidable a force, the news of the compulsory renunciations of the Bourbon dynasty formed the signal for a general insurrection. On the morning of the 2d of May, immense crowds collected in the principal streets of the capital, and, rendered confident by their numbers, attacked the French troops with great vigour and resolution, forced them to retreat, and obtained possession of

their cannon, with which they succeeded in driving them out of the city. The great street of Alcala, the Sun-Gate, and the Great Square, were the principal scenes of the early success, and of the subsequent massacre, of the inhabitants. The alarm was no sooner given than the French repaired to their posts, and the large reinforcements which poured into the city overwhelmed the insurgents. About two o'clock the firing ceased, and the inhabitants flattered themselves that the carnage was at an end, but in the afternoon Murat issued orders for the immediate formation of a military tribunal, of which General Grouchy was appointed president; and, after a summary trial, three groups of forty each were successively shot. In this manner was the evening of the 2d of May spent by the French at Madrid; the inhabitants were commanded to illuminate their houses; and through the whole night the dead and dying were lying in heaps upon the blood-stained pavement. The numbers slain on the side of the people must have been immense; and it is stated, on the authority of an eye-witness, that the insurrection was not quelled till after most of the French soldiers actually in the city, at the time of its commencement, were put to death.

This effort of the citizens of Madrid, which ought to have aroused the Junta to a sense of their duty, produced directly the opposite effect, and bent them completely to the will of Murat. Through his influence, the Holy Inquisition addressed a circular to all the courts of the kingdom, in which they accused the Spanish people of having occasioned, by their factious disposition, and outrageous violence, the disturbances and bloodshed of the 2d of May.

The patriotic flame burnt brightly in the province

of Asturias, from whence it spread into Galicia, and several districts of Leon. A provincial Junta assembled at Oviedo published a formal declaration of war against France, and, having appointed the Marquis of Santa Cruz general of the patriotic army, sent a deputation to solicit the assistance of England, which was readily granted, and the British government declared itself at peace with the Spanish nation. The defence of Arragon was committed to General Palafox, whose bold and animated addresses had contributed to rouse his countrymen to arms, and Saragossa, the principal city, was considered by the French as a place of so much importance, that they made repeated attacks upon it with all the forces they could spare; but though they more than once obtained possession of some parts of the town, they were never able to preserve what they with so much difficulty acquired. Another point of great importance to both the contending parties was the possession of the principal road between Bayonne and Madrid, and Cuesta was the Spanish general appointed to secure that important object: the French general dispatched for the same purpose was Lesolles. The hostile forces met on the 14th of July at Rio Seco, near Valladolid, and the Spaniards were compelled to retreat, on which the French took possession of Rio Seco, and afterwards of St. Andero; their triumph, however, was of short duration, the advance of General de Ponti, with a division of 10,000 men from the Asturian army, obliging the French to evacuate the town precipitately.

Whilst the Spanish troops were preparing themselves for new victories, Buonaparte remained at Bayonne, directing or receiving the deliberations of the Junta which he had convened, and drawing up a constitution for Spain. Murat, under plea of ill-

health, having previously quitted Madrid, Joseph Bonaparte, accompanied by his principal ministers, set out for the capital of his yet unconquered kingdom, where he arrived, under the protection of 10,000 men, on the 20th of July; but on that very day General Dupont, with 15,000 men, surrendered himself and his army prisoners to Castanos, the chief of the Andalusian army, and as soon as this news reached Madrid, Joseph and his court sought their safety in flight, meanly consoling themselves, however, by carrying off the regalia, plate, and other valuables in the royal palaces. The council of Castile immediately resumed the government, with professions of ardent attachment to the cause of their deposed monarch; but these professions were received with distrust by the patriots, and the government of the country still continued to be administered by the Junta of Seville. It was also judged expedient to form a military Junta at Madrid, composed of five generals, including Castanos and Morla.

In England, an expedition which had been fitted out under Sir Arthur Wellesley, for the purpose, it was supposed, of proceeding against Spanish America, was countermanded on the arrival of the news of the insurrection in Spain. This army, consisting of about 10,000 men, sailed from Cork on the 12th of July, and Sir Arthur, having arrived at Corunna on the 20th, offered the assistance of the force under his command to the Junta of Galicia; but that body, though the defeat at Rio Seco had taken place a few days before, and the Spaniards were retreating in every direction, unintimidated by their late reverses, replied, that they wished for nothing from the British government except money, arms, and ammunition: they expressed their firm conviction, however, that the armament might

be of infinite service if it were employed in driving the French from Lisbon, and to that point it accordingly proceeded. The English government next turned its thoughts to the Spanish troops which Buonaparte had drawn, under the pretence of securing Hanover, to the northern parts of Germany; and a negociation being entered into between their commander, the Marquis de la Romana, and the British admiral, Sir Richard Keats, 10,000 men were, by a well concerted plan, rescued from the power of Buonaparte, and landed on the northern coast of Spain, to support the patriotic cause.

Buonaparte returned to Paris on the 5th of September, when 160,000 men were ordered to be raised for the augmentation of his army, which, combined with the report of the French minister for foreign affairs, stating that 200,000 men were to be placed at the service of the war in Spain, sufficiently indicated that the insurrections in that country had not shaken his purposes. Having arranged his military operations, Buonaparte set out from Paris to meet the Emperor Alexander, and the dependant German princes, at Erfurth. The proceedings of this meeting were never suffered to transpire, but it cannot be doubted that one of its objects was to overawe Austria, and to arrange the co-operation of Russia and the confederate states of the Rhine against her, if she attempted to avail herself of the war in Spain. On his return to Paris, he assured the legislative body that the Emperor of Russia and himself were determined to make considerable sacrifices in order to procure, for the hundred millions of men whom they represented, an early enjoyment of the commerce of the seas; and he announced his resolution to depart in a few days to put himself at the head of his armies, to crown the

King of Spain at Madrid, and to plant his eagles on the forts of Lisbon. He arrived at Bayonne on the 3d. of November, and, from this period, the progress of the campaign became unfavourable to the patriotic cause. Having fully succeeded in the north-west of Spain, Buonaparte suddenly and unexpectedly directed his efforts against the forces under Castanos, on the Ebro, whom he defeated at Tudela on the 23d.; and, in the short space of three weeks, the grand armies of Blake, Castanos, and Count Belveder, on which the principal hopes of the Spanish nation rested for the defence of the capital and the north of Spain, were defeated, and, in a great measure, dispersed!

During these disasters, the troops which had been sent by Britain to the aid of the patriots were not far enough advanced, either to support their allies, or to oppose any efficient check to the progress of the enemy. Sir John Moore, with about 15,000 men, arrived at Salamanca on the 14th of November; Sir David Baird was at Astorga at the same time, with about 14,000 men; and General Hope, with 10,000, was on his route towards Madrid. In consequence of the rapid successes of the French, General Hope, after reaching the Escorial, found it expedient to retreat, and form a junction with Sir John Moore; and, upon the latter receiving intelligence of the defeat of Castanos, all the British forces began their retreat; but they soon after resumed their respective positions at Astorga and Salamanca. On the 22d. of November, eleven days after the battle of Tudela, Buonaparte removed his head-quarters from Burgos, and marched against Madrid by the direct road of the Castiles. The Puerto, a passage of the Somo Sierra, was defended by a division of from 12 to 15,000 Spaniards, and by a battery of 16 pieces of cannon, but the

powerful army to which they were opposed compelled them to seek safety in flight, leaving their cannon in the hands of the enemy. On the 2d of December Buonaparte arrived on the heights which overlook the capital of Spain, and summoned it to surrender, but the bearer of the proposal narrowly escaped being torn to pieces by the inhabitants, who evinced a resolution to defend themselves, which was feebly seconded by their leaders; and, after an obstinate resistance, the French forces took possession of the city on the 4th, the Spanish troops being withdrawn during the preceding night.

The news of the Spanish insurrection soon reached Lisbon, but the inhabitants, kept in awe by the army of Junot, were prevented at first from manifesting their joy at the intelligence: at Oporto, however, circumstances were more favourable. A body of Spanish troops which occupied that city, on learning that their services were required in their own country, determined to join the patriotic ranks, but, before their departure, they took the French general and his staff prisoners, and delivered up the government of the city to Louise d'Oliveira, who immediately opened a friendly communication with an English frigate which was cruising off that port. The conduct of Oporto served as an example for the other parts of Portugal; nearly the whole of the north rose in arms against the French; the authority of the Prince Regent was re-established; and provincial Juntas, similar in their character and functions to those in Spain, were formed. These assemblies turning their attention towards England for assistance, the army of Sir Arthur Wellesley, which had, in the first instance, been offered to the Spaniards, was disembarked in Portugal, and subsequently ag-

mented by reinforcements from the south of Spain under Generals Anstruther and Ackland, and from the Baltic under Sir John Moore. On the arrival of the expedition at Oporto, the bishop stated that the Portuguese force in that quarter was sufficient to repel the attacks of the enemy, on which Sir Arthur Wellesley determined to effect a landing in Mondego bay, having previously given orders to General Spencer to join him at that place; and on the 9th of August their united forces advanced on the road to Lisbon. On the 15th the advanced guard of the British army came up, for the first time, with a party of the French at Oviedas, when a slight action took place. On the 17th Sir Arthur determined to attack General Laborde, whose force, strongly and advantageously posted at Roleia, consisted of about 6000 men. A desperate battle ensued, attended with very considerable loss on the side of the British; but, at the close of the day, the enemy was completely repulsed, and his retreat might have been cut off, had the British army been supplied with the usual proportion of cavalry. Junot, having been informed of the reinforcements which the British army expected, resolved, notwithstanding the defeat of his troops at Roleia, to anticipate their arrival, for which purpose he left Lisbon with nearly the whole of his disposable force, amounting to about 14,000 men, and on the morning of the 21st came up with the army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, at Vimiera. The French commenced the attack on various points with their usual impetuosity, but met with a resistance to which they had been long unaccustomed. After repulsing them at the point of the bayonet, the British became the assailants, and General Anstruther advancing for the purpose of occupying his position on the left, attacked

their flank, and threw them into complete confusion. Nearly at the same time the enemy assailed General Ferguson's brigade, and again he gave way before the rampart of British bayonets with which he was resisted. Having failed in every quarter the French commenced a retreat, after sustaining a loss of 3000 men, and 13 pieces of cannon. In this decisive victory the whole of the French force in Portugal was employed, under the command of Junot, the Duke of Abrantes, in person; the enemy was certainly superior in cavalry and artillery, and not more than half of the British army was actually engaged. Sir Harry Burrard, who arrived on the morning of the battle, declined assuming the command till Sir Arthur Wellesley should have completed his operations, and on the following day Sir Hew Dalrymple, who had been ordered from his situation as Lieutenant-governor of Gibraltar, for the purpose of taking the command of all the different corps sent by the British government into Portugal, reached Cintra, to which the British army had moved. A few hours after his arrival, a flag of truce came in from Junot, with a proposal for a cessation of hostilities, that a convention, by which the French should evacuate Portugal, might be agreed upon; and an armistice was accordingly consented to, which formed the basis of the convention of Cintra. Its essential articles were, that the English government should be at the expense of transporting the whole of the French army to any of the ports in France, between Rochfort and L'Orient; that they were to be at liberty to serve again immediately; and that all the property of the French army, as well as of individuals, was to be sacred and untouched, and might either be sold in Portugal, or carried off into France. The embarkation was to take place in

three divisions, the first to sail within seven days from the date of the ratification of the convention; no native of Portugal was to be molested on account of his political conduct during the time the French had occupied that country; and such of them as were desirous of withdrawing into France were to have full liberty to dispose of their property. When the insurrection in Spain first broke out, Junot had ordered a number of Spanish troops, serving in his army, into confinement in the ships in the harbour; and, in return for the delivering up of these Spaniards, the British commander engaged to obtain the release of such French subjects, either military or civil, as were detained in Spain without having been taken in battle. Sir Charles Cotton concluded a separate convention with Admiral Siniavin, by which the Russian ships in the Tagus were surrendered, with their stores, to be held as a deposit by England until six months after pacification with Russia.

In Portugal, as well as in England, the terms of the convention produced universal discontent. General Freire, commander of the Portuguese troops, entered a formal protest against it, and the coolness which had already unfortunately taken place, was, by this means, greatly aggravated. On the 15th of September the French troops completed their embarkation, and, on that day, Portugal was entirely freed from the presence of an enemy, who, for ten months, had inflicted upon the country the most severe calamities. The British, however, did not begin their march towards Spain, till two months after the ratification of the convention of Cintra; and even then, upwards of 10,000 were left behind. This fatal convention drew after it a long train of disaster and disgrace. One of its first effects was to suspend all the operations of the

army, and Sir Hew Dalrymple, Sir Harry Burrard, and Sir Arthur Wellesley, were all summoned to England, in consequence of the inquiry which was instituted into that proceeding, and of which the result was a formal declaration, communicated officially to Sir Hew Dalrymple, strongly disapproving the terms of both the armistice and convention.

The command of the British army was now vested in Sir John Moore, who had distinguished himself in the West Indies, in Holland, and in Egypt, and had recently returned from Sweden, whither he had been sent, at the head of 10,000 men, to assist the king, against whom war had been declared by Russia, Prussia, and Denmark; but, through the capricious and violent conduct of that monarch, he had been constrained to bring back his troops without landing them. The force destined to act in favour of the Spaniards marched from Lisbon on the 27th of October, under the command of Sir John Moore, with whom Sir David Baird, who had been sent from England with a reinforcement of 10,000 men, was directed to form a junction wherever he should appoint. Sir David arrived at Corunna on the 13th of October, and, to his astonishment, the Junta of Galicia at first refused him permission to land his troops; and when their tardy acquiescence was at length obtained, his reception was extremely cold and dispiriting. Sir John Moore also, when he arrived at Salamanca on the 18th of November, found it necessary to write to the British minister at Madrid, desiring him frankly to inform the Spanish government that if they expected his army to advance, they must prepare themselves to pay more attention to its wants; and the farther he went, the more strongly was he impressed with the conviction, that the information, upon the faith of

which he had crossed the frontiers of Portugal, was destitute of foundation. He had been officially informed that his entry into Spain would be covered by 60,000 men; but he had now advanced within three marches of the French army, and not even a Spanish picquet had appeared to protect his front. All their principal armies were beaten and dispersed; Burgos was in possession of the French; and even Valladolid had been entered and occupied by their cavalry. Under these circumstances, Sir John Moore resolved to retreat; but, before he could put this determination into effect, he received a communication from Mr. Frere, the British ambassador at Madrid, which induced him to advance.

Before he had proceeded a day's march on his route, Sir John Moore learnt, by an intercepted dispatch, that Buonaparte, who had entered Madrid on the 4th of December, was advancing towards Lisbon, and that a body of 18,000 men, under Soult, Duke of Dalmatia, was posted at Saldana, on the banks of the Carrion. Sir John, anxious to meet the wishes of his troops by leading them against the enemy, effected a junction with Sir David Baird, and proceeded, by rapid marches, to the Carrion. Here the advanced posts of the two armies first met, and the superiority of the British cavalry, under Lord Paget, was eminently displayed in a successful skirmish; but just as Sir John Moore had issued his orders for a general attack, and had requested the Marquis of Romana to co-operate with his forces, he received information that Buonaparte, in person, was advancing in his rear; that the force which had been stationed at Talavera had moved forward to Salamanca; and that Soult himself had received strong reinforcements. Retreat was now indispensable. The corps of Soult, before it was rein-

forced, consisted of 18,000 men; the right flank of the British was threatened by Junot, who, liberated by the convention of Cintra from his perilous situation in Portugal, had again advanced into Spain, with 15,000 men; while Buonaparte, who had quitted Madrid on the 18th, with 40,000 troops, was advancing with his usual rapidity. At Benevente another skirmish took place, which terminated greatly to the honour of the British cavalry, and in which the French general Lefebvre, at the head of his chasseurs, was taken prisoner. Finding that his main force could not come up with Sir John Moore before he had quitted Benevente, and his presence being required in France, Buonaparte committed the further prosecution of the pursuit to Marshal Soult. The situation of the British army was, at this time, dispiriting in the extreme. In the midst of winter, in a dreary and desolate country, the soldiers, chilled and drenched by deluges of rain, and wearied by long and rapid marches, were almost destitute of fuel to cook their victuals, and it was with extreme difficulty that they procured shelter. Their provisions were scanty, irregular, and difficult of attainment; the waggons, in which were their magazines, baggage, and stores, were often deserted in the night by the Spanish drivers, terrified by the approach of the French. Thus baggage, ammunition, stores, and even money, were frequently obliged to be destroyed, to prevent them from falling into the hands of the enemy; and the weak, the sick, and the wounded, were necessarily left behind. In the midst of these distresses, the Spanish peasantry are said to have offered no assistance, and shown no sympathy; on the contrary, though armed, they fled at the approach of the English, carrying with them every thing that could alleviate their distress, or contribute to

their preservation or comfort. The difficulties and anxiety of the British commander were increased by the relaxation which took place in the discipline of his army. The disappointment which they experienced in not being allowed to measure their strength with the enemy, and the sufferings of a retreat which they considered as a disgraceful and unnecessary flight, contributed to weaken their habits of order and subordination, and compelled Sir John Moore to issue such orders as should unequivocally express his sense of so great an evil, and his unalterable determination to punish, in the most severe and exemplary manner, every future offender. The enemy was now pressing Sir John Moore so much that he resolved to halt at Lugo, at which place he arrived on the 5th of January, 1809, and to offer battle; but Soult did not think it safe to attack him in the strong position which he had taken up near this place; and Sir John, not judging it prudent either to act offensively, or to delay his retreat, quitted his ground in the night of the 9th, leaving his fires burning. On the 11th, the whole of the British army reached Corunna, with the exception of General Crawford's division, consisting of 3000 men, which had embarked at Vigo; but, unfortunately, the transports had not yet arrived, and the next morning the French army, under the Duke of Dalmatia, occupied an extensive line above the town, in readiness to make an attack as soon as the troops should begin to embark.

On the 14th, in the evening, the transports hove in sight; and on the 16th, when orders had been issued for the embarkation of the whole army, General Hope reported from his post that the enemy's line was getting under arms. This was about noon, at the moment that Sir John Moore was visiting his

outposts, and explaining his plans to the general officers: but as soon as he was informed of this hostile indication, he flew to the field, where the picquets were already engaged, and beheld the French descending from the hills in four columns, two of which threatened Sir David Baird's division, on the right of the British line. This effort was met by Sir John Moore and Sir David Baird, at the head of the 42d and 50th Highland regiments, and the brigade under Lord W. Bentinck, by whom the enemy was charged and driven back with great slaughter, though not till Sir David had received a severe wound in his arm, and was obliged to retire from the scene of action. Sir John Moore then ordered up the guards to support the brave Highlanders; but while in the very act of giving the word, he received his death-wound. Undismayed by the loss of their commander, the British soldiers maintained the advantages they had gained on the right, and, with the most determined bravery, continued to repel the attacks of the enemy on their centre and left, till they actually forced him to retire, although he had brought up fresh troops in support of those originally engaged; and, on the close of the day, the British were left masters of the field. Not more than 15,000 British were engaged, of whom between 7 and 800 were killed or wounded. The French exceeded 20,000, and their loss was estimated at about 2000.

In consequence of the death of Sir John Moore, and the wound of Sir David Baird, the command in chief had devolved upon General Hope, who lost no time in carrying into effect the embarkation of the troops, according to the arrangements already made by his predecessor; they accordingly quitted their position about ten o'clock at night, and marched into

Corunna, where every thing was so well concerted, that during the night, and in the course of the following day, the whole army embarked without further molestation. When the French found the British were gone they fired on the transports, which so alarmed the masters of several of them that they cut their cables, and four of the ships ran aground; the troops, however, were removed, and the vessels destroyed. The body of Sir John Moore was hastily interred on the ramparts of Corunna, where a monument was afterwards raised to his memory.

In this retreat the British army lost all its ammunition, all its magazines, above 5000 horses, and 5 or 6000 men. The expedition, however, calamitous as it proved, was not destitute of advantage to the cause it was intended to support, as it drew Buonaparte from the south, which at that time lay entirely open to his enterprises, ruined his equipments, reduced the numbers of his army, and so severely harassed his troops as to diminish his exertions, and afford time to the Spaniards to recover in some degree from the terrors of their enemy.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE prominent features of the speech from the throne, at the opening of the British Parliament on the 31st of January, 1808, were the expedition to Copenhagen, the relation of England with foreign states, and the orders which his Majesty had issued in council, retaliating upon France her decrees against the commerce of Great Britain. The address was carried in both Houses without a division, but through-

out the session the opposition to ministers was unusually active ; their majorities, nevertheless, were generally great. Although the secret articles of the treaty of Tilsit were not produced, their conduct in the expedition against Denmark met decided approval ; the feelings of the English people still, however, prompted them to wish that the odium of coercing a neutral power had been left to France, and that the capture of the Danish fleet had been reserved as another triumph for our navy in defensive war. The orders of council were made valid by an act passed on the 25th of March, which was accompanied by a bill for regulating the commercial intercourse with America, until amicable arrangements should be concluded with that country.

On the 9th of February, Sir Francis Burdett, having observed in the newspapers that large sums arising from the droits of admiralty had been granted by his Majesty to several princes of the blood, and particularly that 20,000*l.* from this fund had lately been granted to the Duke of York, asked on what colour or pretext it was that the King came to seize on that property, and to dispose of it in such a manner. Mr. Perceval replied, that the condemnation of the property alluded to was a judicial act of the court before which it came to be tried, and the right of his Majesty to these droits resolved itself into two distinct parts : the right of the crown, and his right as lord high admiral. As to the appropriation of the fund, a considerable portion of it had been granted to captors, under various circumstances ; many grants had been made for the public service ; relief had in some cases been afforded to the sufferers by the sudden breaking out of the war ; and, the whole being completely under his Majesty's controul, grants had been occa-

sionally made to the younger branches of the royal family. Sir Francis Burdett, after observing that the proceeds alluded to amounted to such a considerable sum, that he was convinced Parliament could never endure that it should be left as the private property of the King, moved, with a view to an ulterior inquiry, for an account of the net proceeds, paid out of the court of admiralty to the receiver-general of droits, of all property condemned to his Majesty since the 1st of January, 1793, with the balances now remaining, which was agreed to.

When the mutiny bill came under consideration in the Commons, Lord Castlereagh, referring to Mr. Windham's system, said that he had no objection to limited service under certain modifications, but he thought it ought not to be enforced to the exclusion of unlimited service, and therefore moved that a clause be introduced, allowing the option of enlisting for life, which was carried by 169 against 100. Another measure relating to internal defence, submitted to the House by Lord Castlereagh, was the creation of a force subsidiary to the regular militia, amounting to 60,000 men. This body he proposed should form a local militia, and be ballotted for in the different counties, in proportion to the deficiency of volunteers of each, from among persons between the ages of 18 and 25. Volunteer corps might, if they chose, transfer themselves, with the approbation of his Majesty, into this local militia. The period of service during the year to be twenty-eight days, for which pay was to be allowed. This measure encountered strenuous opposition, but was ultimately carried.

The chancellor of the exchequer did not this year find himself under the necessity of adding much to the public burdens. By an arrangement with the

Bank of England, 500,000*l.* of the unclaimed dividends were obtained for immediate use; a reduction in the charges of the bank for superintending the pecuniary concerns of the public was effected to the amount of 64,000*l.*; and a loan of 3,000,000*l.* was granted by the directors to government, without interest, till six months after the termination of the war. The supplies voted amounted to about 43,000,000*l.* for England, and 5,700,000*l.* for Ireland, and the ways and means included a loan of 8,000,000*l.* to provide for the interest of which new taxes were only found necessary to the amount of 325,000*l.* A new financial plan was introduced by the chancellor of the exchequer to accelerate the reduction of the national debt. It was to enable proprietors of three *per cent.* consolidated or reduced bank annuities, to exchange with the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, such bank annuities, for a life annuity during the continuance of one or two lives. To prevent impositions, the power of transfer was to be limited to persons under 35 years of age, and the amount of the transfer to sums not less than 100*l.*; the stock not to be transferable when the funds were above 80. The effect would be to secure to the nation the redemption of the funds so transferred, at the price at which they were when the transfer was made.

A bill for preventing the grant of offices in reversion, or for joint lives with benefit of survivorship, was brought in by Mr. Bankes, and carried through the Commons; but in the Lords, though supported by several of his Majesty's ministers, it was opposed by the lord-chancellor, Lord Arden, Lord Redesdale, and the Duke of Montrose, and thrown out by a majority of 80 voices. Conceiving, however, that it was

incumbent upon the House of Commons not to abandon a measure so connected with retrenchment, Mr. Bankes introduced another bill, similar in its object, but limited as to duration, and the bill, thus modified, passed the Upper House.

In the course of the session, Sir Samuel Romilly, who, in common with many other enlightened men, had long lamented that in the criminal law of the country so many crimes were subject to capital punishment, introduced a bill for the repeal of so much of an act of Elizabeth, as related to taking away the benefit of clergy from offenders convicted of stealing privately from the person. A clause was introduced by the solicitor-general, to provide that private stealing, as distinguished from robbery, should be punished by transportation for life, or for a term of years, at the discretion of the judge, at whose option the punishment might be commuted into imprisonment for any period not exceeding three years. A bill was also passed, framed by the lord-chancellor, for the better administration of justice in Scotland, the object of which was to divide the court of session into two chambers of seven or eight judges, to give those courts certain powers of making regulations with respect to proceedings, and to executions in pending appeals, and also of issuing commissions to ascertain in what cases it might be proper to establish a trial by jury. An act for prohibiting, for a limited time, the distillation of spirits from corn or grain, was strongly opposed in all its stages, as tending to check that demand, which, by encouraging agriculturists to grow more than was necessary for the ordinary support of the people, ensured a supply in seasons of scarcity. It was defended as a temporary measure, on the ground that the supply of grain from the conti-

nent was cut off, and no prospect left of a sufficient resource in the last year's crop of this country.

The cause of the Spanish patriots had awakened the zeal, and animated the enthusiasm of the people of this country, to a degree almost unexampled ; and Mr. Sheridan seemed only to be the organ of the public voice, when he rose in the House of Commons, on the 15th of June, to direct the attention of the legislature to the affairs of Spain, and to demand their utmost exertions in favour of the Spaniards. Mr. Canning, in reply, declared that his Majesty's ministers saw, with a deep and lively interest, the noble struggle which a part of the Spanish nation was now making to resist the unexampled atrocity of France, and to preserve the independence of their country ; and assured the House, that there existed the strongest disposition, on the part of the British government, to afford every practicable aid in a contest so magnanimous. On the 4th of July Parliament was prorogued, and the commissioners declared, in his Majesty's name, that he would continue to make every exertion in his power for the support of the Spanish cause.

At the commencement of 1808, Austria, hitherto the principal ally of Britain, declared against her ; the alleged cause of which was a refusal, by the English cabinet, to accept the mediation of the emperor for a peace between England and France, on the ground that the overtures appeared too vague and indeterminate to authorize the opening of a negotiation, Stahrenberg, the Austrian ambassador, presenting no authenticated document from the French ruler, nor giving any intimation of the basis on which it was proposed to treat ; the real cause, however, lay in the predominating influence of France, which was also apparent in the north of Europe. In February a

Russian army entered the Swedish province of Finland, and war was respectively declared by the courts of St. Petersburg and Stockholm. Christian the Seventh, King of Denmark, died about the same time, and the Crown Prince, who, from the imbecility of his father, had long conducted the affairs of government, assumed the sceptre by the name of Frederic the Sixth. His accession was followed by a declaration of war against Sweden, whose sovereign, with some qualities of heroism, wanted the soundness of mind necessary for the management of public affairs, and acted more from the impulse of passion than the conclusions of reason. Already involved in a war with France and Russia, he immediately prepared to meet the combination of dangers by which he was threatened; and as his resources were inadequate to the contest, the English government granted him a subsidy of 100,000*l.* per month, and dispatched 10,000 troops to afford such aid as the circumstances of the war might demand. Unfortunately, however, a disagreement between the Swedish monarch and Sir John Moore, the English general, respecting their military plans, prevented their co-operation, and the armament was ordered to the aid of the Spanish patriots. A British squadron, under Sir Samuel Hood, was also sent to the Baltic to act in concert with the Swedish admiral, and a Russian ship of 74 guns was taken and destroyed, in consequence of her having grounded.

While Russia was extending her dominion in the north, she strengthened her armies on the side of Turkey, where another revolution took place. Mustapha Bairactar, a man of enterprising character, determined to enforce the obnoxious innovations in the military system, and, introducing a body of troops

into the capital, deposed the new ministers, put to death the aga of the Janizaries, and caused the de-throned Selim to be proclaimed. His soldiers having forced an entrance into the seraglio in search of the deposed monarch, they found him weltering in his blood; the reigning sultan, Mustapha, to whom the murder was attributed, became in his turn a prisoner; and his nephew Mahomed, a youth of fifteen, was proclaimed in his stead. Bairactar, who was appointed vizier, instituted many salutary improvements in the various branches of administration, but his career was soon interrupted. On the 15th of November the Janizaries rose in great force and stormed the seraglio, when Bairactar, seeing that all was lost, caused the deposed Mustapha to be strangled, and blew himself up in his own palace.

Buonaparte, this year, effected considerable changes in the affairs of Italy. He adopted his son-in-law, Eugene Beauharnois, as his own son, and settled that kingdom upon him in tail male; expressly stating, however, that the right which Eugene received by adoption should never, in any case, authorize him or his descendants to bring forward any claim to the throne of France; the succession of which was "irrevocably" fixed; he incorporated with the crown of Italy the dominions of the Pope, stating in a decree, as the sole reason for this act of undisguised despotism, that "the sovereign of Rome had refused to make war against England." Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla were also annexed to that kingdom, as were Kehl, Wesel, Cassel, and Flushing to France. The crown of Naples was transferred to Joachim Murat, who had married a sister of Buonaparte; and, to render his domestic policy still more subservient to his schemes of foreign subjugation, he instituted an

imperial university, declared himself the head, and decreed that no school or seminary of education should be free from its controul. An order of hereditary nobility was also created.

The British Parliament assembled on the 19th of January, 1809, when his Majesty's speech was delivered by commission. This document, which related principally to the affairs of Spain and Portugal, strongly recommended an augmentation of the regular army, in order that his Majesty might be the better enabled, without impairing the means of defence at home, to avail himself of the military power of his dominions to conduct the great contest in which he was engaged to a favourable conclusion. The usual address was carried in both Houses without a division, but not without several strong animadversions on the manner in which the war had been conducted, and on the general policy of his Majesty's government. On the 25th, the Earl of Liverpool, in the House of Peers, and Lord Castlereagh, in the Commons, moved the thanks of Parliament to the officers and men under Sir John Moore, by whose gallantry and good conduct the victory of Corunna was achieved. The motion was carried unanimously in both Houses, and a monument was voted to the memory of the deceased general. This was succeeded by a motion for thanks to Sir Arthur Wellesley, and the officers and men under his command, for the brilliant victory obtained at the battle of Vimiera, which was carried, with the sole dissentient voice of Lord Folstone, who thought such a tribute greater than the service could claim.

On the 2d of February, a bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Lord Castlereagh, for augmenting the disposable force of the country; and

though it called forth a very animated opposition, the measure ultimately passed into a law. It was agreed that the militia should be reduced to about three-fifths of its present force by volunteering into the line, and that 24,000 men should be raised to supply the deficiency.

The convention of Cintra, and the circumstances which led to the conclusion of that treaty, were brought under the consideration of Parliament, on the 21st of February, by Lord Henry Petty, who moved resolutions directly censuring the convention, and attributing the causes to the misconduct of ministers; and although it was strenuously contended that to have expelled, in the course of a short campaign of three weeks, an army of 25,000 French from Portugal, was a brilliant addition to the military glory of the country, the previous question was only carried by 203 against 158. This motion was succeeded by another, three days afterwards, by Mr. Ponsonby, for an inquiry into the causes, consequences, and events of the late disasters in Spain, which ministers judged it proper to resist, and a more considerable majority of the House was in their favour.

Previously, however, to the latter motions, Colonel Wardle, on the 27th of January, submitted a motion respecting certain abuses which had prevailed in the military department. The power of disposing of commissions in the army, a power which, he was sorry to say, had been exercised to the worst of purposes, had been placed in the hands of a person of high birth and extensive influence, for the purpose of defraying the charges of the half-pay list, for the support of veteran officers, and for increasing the compassionate fund for the aid of officers' widows and orphans; but he could bring positive proof that such

commissions had been sold, and the money applied to very different objects. He then proceeded to state, at very considerable length, the evidence he should adduce in support of his charges, which were, in substance, that Mrs. Clarke, a female who had lived under the "protection" of the Duke of York, with a splendid establishment in Gloucester Place, had been permitted by his royal highness to traffic in commissions; that she in fact possessed the power of military promotion; that she received pecuniary consideration; and that the duke participated in the emoluments which were derived from this scandalous, corrupt, and illegal traffic. Having gone through the whole of his statement, Colonel Wardle concluded by moving for a committee of inquiry into the conduct of the Duke of York, in respect to the disposal of military commissions, which, after a debate of considerable length, was agreed to, the chancellor of the exchequer observing, that publicity had been mentioned as desirable; he was of the same opinion; and it was therefore determined that the investigation should be conducted before a committee of the whole House.

In the course of the cross-examinations much important evidence was adduced, and the charges derived additional strength from the means taken by the advocates of the commander-in-chief to refute them: indeed his royal highness was more indebted for the strong parts of the case made out against him to his friends than to his enemies; and the numerous letters brought to light by their means, of which the prosecutor at first was totally ignorant, placed Mr. Wardle, for a time, on high ground. At the close of the evidence on the 22d of February, the opinion of the general officers, who were members of the House of

Commons, was asked with respect to the improvement of the army in discipline and condition, and whether the system of promotion had not been improved under the administration of the Duke of York. Generals Norton and Fitzpatrick, the secretary at war, Sir Arthur Wellesley, and General Grosvenor, all answered these questions affirmatively, and pronounced high eulogiums on the character and conduct of his royal highness. During this inquiry, which was continued for three weeks without the intervention of any other business, Mrs. Clarke was repeatedly examined at the bar, and, by the readiness and smartness of her answers to the infinite number of questions proposed, gave a degree of relief to the protracted examinations. On the 23d of February a letter was addressed by the Duke of York to the House of Commons, through the medium of the Speaker, in which his royal highness, in the most solemn manner, upon his honour as a prince, distinctly asserted his innocence, and claimed from the justice of the House, that he should not be condemned without a trial.

On the 8th of March the subject was resumed, when Mr. Wardle moved an address to his Majesty, stating, that, after a diligent and laborious inquiry, it had been proved, to the satisfaction of the House, that corrupt practices had existed to a very great extent in the different departments of the military administration, and praying that his Majesty would be graciously pleased to remove the Duke of York from the command of the army. To that address an amendment was proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, substituting two resolutions, the first, stating that an inquiry had been instituted into the conduct of the commander-in-chief; and the second, that it was the opinion of the House that there was

no just ground to charge his royal highness with personal corruption or criminal connivance. To this amendment another was moved by Mr. Bankes, acquitting the duke of personal corruption or criminal connivance, but expressing an opinion that abuses could scarcely have existed to the extent proved, without exciting some suspicion in the mind of the commander-in-chief, and suggesting that, after the exposures made by the recent inquiry, the cause of religion, and a regard to the public happiness and tranquillity, required the removal of the Duke of York from the command of the army. The motion of Mr. Wardle, and the subsequent amendments, gave rise to many long and animated discussions, in the course of which it was urged, in favour of the original motion, that whatever might be due to the superior rank of his royal highness, the members of that House should, as representatives of the people, always bear in mind that it was their duty to protect the public interests, and to watch over the security and welfare of the state. By the supporters of the Duke of York, it was contended, that Mrs. Clarke was wholly unworthy of credit, and that there was no evidence to establish the corrupt participation or criminal connivance of the duke. If it could once be supposed that he was a party in such a conspiracy, how was it possible that there should have been any distress for money, when there was a mint for making it constantly at work? There were then in the army upwards of 10,000 officers; and such was the eagerness for promotion, that there were always persons ready to give ample premiums above the regulated price. Had not his royal highness felt secure in conscious innocence, was it to be supposed that he would have ventured to discard Mrs. Clarke, to with-

draw her annuity, to irritate her to the utmost, and to set all her threats at defiance? It ought to be recollected, that the person against whom the charge now under the consideration of the House was directed, was not only high in office and in rank, but one whose birth placed him so near the crown, that events might one day call him to the throne itself; and yet, by the proceeding now proposed, the House was called upon, on the most questionable evidence, to disgrace itself by pronouncing the duke guilty of the lowest and most infamous species of corruption. In favour of Mr. Bankes's amendment, it was urged that one case, that of Dr. O'Meara, rested upon the duke's own letter as much as upon the evidence of Mrs. Clarke; that it was astonishing that the constant applications of this woman did not create some suspicions in the mind of the duke; and that it was necessary, as a reparation to public morals and decency, to remove him from the command of the army. On the question, whether the House should proceed by address or resolution, there appeared for proceeding by address, 199; by resolution, 204; leaving a majority against Mr. Bankes's address of 95. A second division then took place on Mr. Wardle's motion, which was supported by 123, and opposed by 364.

On the 17th of March the chancellor of the exchequer brought forward his resolution, modified by more mature consideration, and expressed in these terms: "That this House having appointed a committee to investigate the conduct of the Duke of York, as commander-in-chief, and having carefully considered the evidence which came before the said committee, and finding that personal corruption, and connivance at corruption, have been imputed to his said royal highness, find it expedient to pronounce a distinct opinion

upon the said imputation, and are accordingly of opinion that it is wholly without foundation." This motion was carried by 278 against 196. Previously to the divisions it was generally understood that the Duke of York had come to the determination to resign his office of commander-in-chief; and on the 20th the chancellor of the exchequer informed the House that his royal highness, having obtained a complete acquittal of those criminal charges which had been moved against him, was desirous of giving way to that public sentiment which those charges, however ill-founded, had unfortunately drawn down upon him; that, under these circumstances, he had tendered to his Majesty his resignation of the office of commander-in-chief, and that the King had been graciously pleased to accept the same. General Sir David Dundas was appointed his successor; and one of the first consequences of the investigation was the enactment of a law, declaring the brokerage of offices, either in the army, the church, or the state, to be a crime highly penal.

In the course of the investigation into the conduct of the Duke of York, it was ascertained that there was a systematic, and almost avowed traffic in East India appointments, as well as in subordinate places under government. These discoveries led to the appointment of a committee of the House of Commons, to inquire into the abuse of East India patronage, when it appeared that a vast number of cadetships and writerships had been disposed of in an illegal manner. Mr. Thellusson, one of the directors, deeply implicated in these transactions, was in consequence rejected at the next election, and the court determined that all those young men named by the committee of the House of Commons, as having obtained their

appointments by corrupt practices, should be deprived of their employments, and recalled from India. The inquiry into the abuse of India patronage developed transactions intimately connected with the character of the House of Commons, and the proceedings of some of its most distinguished members; and on the 25th of April, Lord Archibald Hamilton submitted a motion grounded on the conduct of Lord Castlereagh, who, in the course of the inquiry, admitted that he, in 1805, delivered into the hands of Lord Clancarty a writership, of which he had the gift, for the purpose of exchanging it for a seat in Parliament. This negotiation, which was finally broken off, was carried on, it appeared, between Lord Castlereagh and a Mr. Reding, an advertising place-broker, who was a perfect stranger to his lordship. Lord Castlereagh expressed his sorrow that any motives of private friendship or of public zeal should have induced him to do any thing requiring the cognizance of that House. If he had erred, it was unintentionally, and he would submit with patience to any censure which he might be thought to have incurred: having made this declaration, his lordship bowed to the chair, and retired. Lord A. Hamilton then moved, That Lord Castlereagh had been guilty of a dereliction of his duty, as president of the board of controul, a gross violation of his engagements as a servant of the crown, and an attack on the purity and constitution of the House. A long debate ensued, at the close of which the House divided, when the motion of Lord A. Hamilton was rejected by 213 against 167. A motion was afterwards proposed and carried, to the effect, that it was the duty of the House of Commons to maintain and guard the purity and independence of Parliament; but that the intended charge not having

been carried into effect, no criminatory proceeding appeared to the House to be necessary.

The recent exposure of public abuses led to the introduction of a bill into the House of Commons by Mr. Curwen, which ultimately passed into a law, for better securing the purity and independence of Parliament, by preventing the procuring or obtaining seats by corrupt practices, and also for the more effectual prevention of bribery. While this bill was before the House, Mr. Madocks charged the chancellor of the exchequer and Lord Castlereagh with corrupt and criminal practices to procure the return of members to Parliament. He affirmed that Mr. Quintin Dick purchased a seat for Cashel, in Ireland, through the agency of the Hon. Henry Wellesley, who acted on the behalf of the treasury ; that on the question brought forward by Colonel Wardle, Lord Castlereagh intimated the necessity either of his voting with government or of resigning his seat, and that Mr. Dick, rather than vote against his conscience, did vacate his seat. Mr. Perceval, in his defence, declined putting in the plea which he conscientiously could adduce, until the House should have come to a determination on the propriety of entertaining the charge or not ; and he would then come before them prepared to meet the charge, and vindicate his own honour. Mr. Madocks's motion was negatived.

The supplies voted for the year amounted to about 54,000,000*l.* ; and among the ways and means were war-taxes 19,000,000*l.* and a loan of 11,000,000*l.* for Great Britain : 3,000,000*l.* were also borrowed for Ireland, and 600,000*l.* for the Prince of Brazil, for the liquidation of which the revehues of the island of Madeira had been assigned, together with a consignment of such produce of Brazil as belonged to the

prince. The whole loan had been contracted for at the low interest of 4*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* *per cent.* *per annum.* The fourth report of the committee of public expenditure exhibited disclosures regarding the conduct of the commissioners appointed to manage, sell, and dispose of the Dutch ships detained or brought into the ports of Great Britain, which excited considerable surprise. It appeared that the appointment of the commissioners, five in number, took place in 1795; that their transactions were nearly brought to a close in 1799; and that, as no fixed remuneration had been assigned to them, they charged a commission of five *per cent.* on the gross proceeds of their sales, amounting to 132,000*l.*; and not satisfied with this enormous allowance, employed the money intrusted to their hands in discounting private bills for their own emolument. After an animated discussion, the House resolved that the commissioners had been guilty of a flagrant violation of public duty.

Sir Francis Burdett, after submitting a plan of Parliamentary reform, resembling that proposed by the Duke of Richmond thirty years before, moved that the House would, early in the next session, take the subject into consideration. Other members contended that the plan now proposed would never produce the effects anticipated from it, unless the mover of the measure could alter, not only our political constitution, but the frame of the human mind; unless he could at once get rid of human prejudices and human passions. On a division, the proposition was negatived by 74 against 15. Mr. Wardle observed, that an efficient reform would ensure to the people, in their representatives, active supporters of their rights, and faithful guardians of their purse; and he did not hesitate to say, that in such an event, the amount of the

income tax might be saved to the public. This declaration he was loudly called upon to explain; and on the 19th of June, he entered into a statement of various reductions in the expenditure, which he considered practicable to the extent of 16,000,000*l*. In order to show how these savings might be effected, he moved for a large mass of accounts, the whole of which were ordered to be laid on the table; but two days afterwards Parliament was prorogued, after an unusually active session.

It was naturally to be expected that Austria, whose strength had been broken by the disasters of Ulm and Austerlitz, and whose dominion and resources had been curtailed by the peace of Presburg, should endeavour to avail herself of the first favourable opportunity to regain her ancient importance; and accordingly, from the period of the conferences at Erfurth, till Buonaparte crossed the Pyrenees for the purpose of putting himself at the head of his armies in Spain, she went on completing her military preparations. These advances towards a state of hostility were not viewed by France with indifference; and, from Valladolid, Buonaparte sent his mandate to the princes of the confederation of the Rhine, to furnish their contingents, and hold themselves in readiness for war; soon after which he left Spain, and returned to Paris. In the month of March, the preparations for war were prosecuted by both parties with uncommon vigour and activity. The Austrian army was divided into nine corps, each consisting of from 30 to 40,000 men. The Archduke Charles, freed from the interference of the Aulic Council, was appointed generalissimo, and six out of the nine corps were placed under his immediate command; the seventh corps was sent, under the Archduke Ferdinand, into Poland; and the

eighth and ninth to Italy, under the Archduke John. There were also two corps of reserve, one of them, consisting of 20,000 men, commanded by Prince John of Lichtenstein, and the other of 10,000 men, under General Keinmayer, exclusive of the partizan corps, and the landwehr, or militia. The force on which Buonaparte principally relied at the commencement of the war consisted of the contingents from the Confederation of the Rhine. The Bavarians were formed into three divisions, under Marshal Lefebvre, to whom the temporary command of the allied troops was confided till the arrival of Buonaparte. In the mean time, the whole of the north and west of Germany, and the interior of France, were stripped of troops, which proceeded by rapid marches towards the banks of the Danube. On the side of Italy, Prince Eugene, the viceroy of that country, had concentrated a formidable army; and the Saxon troops, under Marshal Bernadotte, were stationed in the neighbourhood of Dresden, to protect that capital from the Austrian army in Bohemia.

On the 8th of April the Emperor of Austria declared war against the French; and on the 9th the Archduke Charles, having established his head-quarters at Dintz, sent formal notice to the French general commanding in Bavaria, that he had received orders to advance with the troops under his command, and to treat as enemies all who should oppose him. This notice served as intimation to the King of Bavaria, who, quitting his capital, repaired to Augsburg. On the following day the Austrians threw a bridge of boats over the Inn, between Brannau and Scharding, and advanced slowly into Bavaria. Three days afterwards, Buonaparte, having learnt by the telegraph that the Austrians had crossed the Inn, quitted Paris,

and arrived at Donawerth on the 17th, from which place he removed to Ingolstadt. On the 19th Marshal Davoust advanced to the village of Pressing, where he met a division of the Austrian army, and an engagement immediately took place, which ended in the defeat of the latter. On the same day, another French corps attacked an Austrian division in front, while the Bavarians fell upon their rear, and completed their rout.

Buonaparte, during the few days which he had passed with the army, had made himself completely acquainted with its positions, and had so far ascertained the situation of the country, as to be able to take advantage of the errors of his enemy. The Archduke Louis and General Hiller had imprudently drawn their divisions to so great a distance from the other corps of the Austrian army, as at once to present a weak point of attack to the French, and to expose the troops under the Archduke Charles, to disorder or destruction. Buonaparte resolved to profit by this mistake, and immediately attacked the archduke in front at Ebensberg, when the Austrians, having taken up their position on broken and intersected ground, were quickly dislodged, and retreated in all directions before the victorious confederates, with the loss of 8 standards, 12 pieces of cannon, and 8000 prisoners. The flank of the Austrian army having been completely laid open by the battle of Ebensberg, Buonaparte lost not a moment in advancing to Landshut. The Austrian cavalry, which had formed before the city, was attacked and driven back by Marshal Bessieres; the same fate awaited the infantry; and the town, with 30 pieces of cannon, 9000 prisoners, and all the magazines established at that place, fell into the hands of the enemy. On the 22d

Buonaparte arrived opposite Eckmuhl, where four corps of the Austrians, amounting to 110,000 men, under the immediate command of the Archduke Charles, were already posted. Never before had these chiefs been opposed to each other, and, as neither had yet experienced a defeat, the utmost confidence reigned in their respective armies. Buonaparte's military eye immediately perceiving that the left wing of the Austrian army was disadvantageously posted, he ordered Marshal Lannes to attack it, while their front was opposed by the main body of the French. The contest was long and obstinate; but, at the close of the day, the archduke's left wing was turned, and he was driven from all his positions. A large body of the Austrians, endeavouring to make a stand under cover of the woods in the neighbourhood of Ratisbon, were driven into the plain, where they suffered dreadfully; and an attempt to cover the retreat of the main body by the cavalry was equally unsuccessful. The Austrians endeavoured to make a stand at Ratisbon; but after three successive charges they gave way, leaving the field covered with 8000 of their slain, and the French troops entered the city through a breach in the fortifications, where a sanguinary engagement also took place.

In these battles Buonaparte pursued his usual plan of breaking the enemy's forces into detached parts, and then attacking them separately; and the Austrians, uninstructed by experience, had so disposed their troops as to favour his operations. At Ebensberg, the two divisions of the Archduke Louis and General Hiller were beaten separately; at Landshut Buonaparte broke through the centre of their communications, and took their magazines and artillery; and in the battle of Eckmuhl, he defeated the remain-

ing divisions of the Austrian army of the Danube, except that of General Bellegarde, which did not join the archduke till the day after his disaster. In the short space of five days, the Austrians lost 40,000 men, and 100 pieces of cannon. On the 10th of May Buonaparte, without encountering any formidable resistance in his way from Ratisbon, appeared before the gates of Vienna. The Archduke Maximilian, to whom the command of the city was intrusted, animated and encouraged the citizens to resistance, as long as the imperfect nature of the fortifications and their unskilfulness in the art of war would permit: for twenty-four hours the French howitzers played upon the town; but their fire, though destructive, did not shake the constancy of the inhabitants, until the communication with the left bank was on the point of being cut off, when surrender became indispensable, and the regular troops, amounting to about 4000, effected their retreat by means of the great bridge of Taba, to which they set fire. The emperor, in anticipation of the advance of the French to Vienna, had taken up his abode at Znaim, in Moravia.

After the battle of Eckmuhl, the Archduke Charles crossed to the north side of the Danube, and retreating in the direction of Bohemia, attempted to gain the capital, by forced marches, before the arrival of the French; but the capture of Vienna was an object of too much importance not to be attempted by Buonaparte with all his powers, and when the archduke had advanced to Meissau, he learned that the city had been obliged to surrender. Deprived, by this capture, of a point of support for the operations of his army, the archduke fixed his head-quarters, on the 16th of May, at Enzersdorf, the chain of his outposts extending on the right as far as Krems, while Prta-

burg, lower down the river, was occupied by his left. Buonaparte lost not a moment in determining to attack him, and moved the French army down the south bank of the Danube to Ebersdorf, where two islands of unequal dimensions divide the river into three branches, of the breadth of about 200 yards each. On the 19th of May the French engineers threw two bridges from the right bank of the Danube to the smaller island; and on the 20th, two other bridges were erected from thence to the Isle of In-der-Lobau, which forms a convenient rendezvous for troops, and where Buonaparte fixed his head-quarters. In three hours a bridge, consisting of fifteen pontoons, was thrown over that arm of the river which separates Lobau from the Marsh Field, and the archduke having determined not to interrupt the passage of the enemy, they were permitted to extend themselves along the left bank of the river without molestation. Buonaparte was accordingly left at liberty to fix on the field of battle, and he immediately posted the right wing of his army on the village of Essling, and the left on that of Aspern. On the 21st the Archduke Charles ordered an attack to be made in five columns, constituting a force of 75,000 effective men, and during that and the following day was fought the obstinate and sanguinary battle of Aspern, or Essling. On both sides, during this long and severe conflict, were deeds of heroic valour performed; and, after a variety of fortune, the French, on the night between the 22d and 23d, retreated from the left bank of the Danube, and took a position in the island of Lobau, their loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners, having probably amounted to 30,000 men. The Austrian loss was also most severe, being acknowledged by the official accounts to have exceeded 20,000. Although

this was the greatest check which the victorious career of Buonaparte had yet received, the state of inaction into which the army of the archduke was suffered to fall after the 22d, too plainly indicated that he had failed in his principal object, which was to drive back the enemy entirely over the first arms of the Danube, destroy the bridges he had thrown over them, and occupy the bank of the Lobau with a numerous artillery.

The King of Saxony, having taken up arms in favour of France, soon found himself stripped of a great part of his dominions; and the Austrians, possessing a powerful army in that quarter, threatened even the newly-formed kingdom of Westphalia, while in these states, as in Hanover also, a formidable insurrection sprang up, which, if it had been cherished by the support, either of the British or the Austrians, would have rendered the situation of Buonaparte critical in the extreme. Unfortunately, however, no such aid was afforded; so that after having harassed the French, and prevented the march of troops to the Danube, they were at last crushed by superior numbers and discipline. At the head of these partizans appeared two men, well calculated by their character, talents, and influence, to collect and animate their followers. Schill, a major in the Prussian service, found no difficulty in raising the inhabitants of a conquered country; and, although it does not appear that the corps which this officer commanded was, at any time, very numerous, it was formidable by the rapidity of its movements, by its sudden and unexpected appearance, and by the countenance it afforded to the discontented inhabitants. After traversing the whole of the north of Germany, in different directions, and perplexing and defeating the troops that were opposed to him, Schill was at length compelled to take shelter in Stralsund, where

he died fighting, and several of his adherents were executed as deserters from the King of Prussia. The Duke of Brunswick Oels, though in his own person less unfortunate than Schill, did not effect any thing more decisive, being at length driven to the necessity of embarking with his little corps for England.

In Italy the Austrians were at first eminently successful; they soon made themselves masters of Padua and Vicenza, crossed the Adige, and threatened Venice itself; but the victories of Buonaparte in Bavaria rendered it advisable for the Archduke John, the Austrian commander in Italy, to measure back his steps. He was closely pursued by the Viceroy of Italy, who, having received a reinforcement of 10,000 men, attacked and overthrew the Austrians beyond the Piave with considerable loss. Advancing towards Vienna in their victorious career, the French, on the anniversary of the battle of Marengo, brought the Archduke John to another engagement at Raab, in which he was defeated, with the loss of 3000 prisoners. After this engagement, the archduke retreated with considerable rapidity, and in some disorder, towards Pest, for the purpose of forming a junction with the main Austrian army; and the viceroy, advancing without impediment to Vienna, served to swell the number of combatants in the approaching great and decisive battle of Wagram.

After the battle of Aspern, Buonaparte continued stationary on the south bank of the Danube till the beginning of July, but scarcely a day passed without producing a bulletin, the ostensible object of which was to register the rise and fall of the Danube, and to congratulate his army on the approach of the Russians, and the junction of the troops under the Viceroy of Italy; Buonaparte, however, was making the

most formidable preparations: in a fortnight, General Count Bertrand raised a bridge of sixty arches over the Danube to In-der-Lobau, so broad that three carriages could pass abreast, over 400 fathoms of a rapid river; and a second bridge, eight feet broad, was constructed for infantry. On the 4th of July the different divisions were called in, and the whole of the French army was concentrated in and about the island of Lobau, which contained magazines of provisions, 100 pieces of cannon, and 20 mortars, with a communication between it and the left bank of the river, by means of three bridges, raised in an incredibly short time, under the direction of Count Bertrand, and a bridge of boats, each covered and protected by a *tête du pont*, and other works. In the night of the 4th, when the Austrians, who were strongly intrenched on the opposite bank, were expecting an attack upon their right, from a feint made by the enemy of crossing the river before Essling, a heavy fire was opened upon the village of Enzersdorff, which supported the left wing of their army. In the short space of two hours the French army crossed the river, and on the morning of the 5th, they were discovered drawn up in order of battle on the Austrian left flank. This manœuvre obliged the Archduke Charles to change his front, and quit his intrenched camp; otherwise he must have given battle on ground selected by the enemy. These movements occupied the whole of the 5th, the night of which was spent by Buonaparte in accumulating his force towards the centre, which was stationed within cannon-shot of the village of Wagram. The archduke, on the contrary, weakened his centre, to secure his two extremities, where the greater part of his artillery was planted. The battle began at day-break on the morning of the 6th, and soon became general through-

out the line. In every attack, the Austrians had rather the advantage; till Buonaparte, bringing almost the whole of his artillery up to one point, began to batter the Austrian centre, as if he had been storming a fortress. To this tremendous thunder the Austrians had nothing that they could oppose; their artillery, as just observed, being stationed at the two extremities of the line. The consequence was, that their centre was driven back two or three miles out of the line: the right wing, alarmed at its danger, gave way, fighting as it retreated; as did also the left, which was attacked in flank by Marshal Davoust. The village of Wagram now fell into the hands of the French; and the Austrians, routed in all quarters, retired towards Moravia. In this battle the French boasted of taking 10 pieces of cannon, and 20,000 prisoners, among whom were nearly 400 officers, while they acknowledged their own loss to have been 1500 killed, and nearly 4000 wounded; but on the part of the Austrians the loss was much greater.

The French pursued the retreating army as far as Znaim, whither the Emperor Francis had retired on the approach of Buonaparte towards Vienna. Here another battle, or rather skirmish, took place, which was terminated by a proposal from the Emperor Francis for an armistice: this being immediately agreed to, it was signed on the 12th, and the terms too plainly indicated the extent of the Austrian losses, and the exhausted state of their resources.

The negotiations for a definitive treaty proceeded very slowly, and were not finally closed till the 15th of October. When the terms were made known, they were generally regarded as less unfavourable to Austria than had been anticipated; the cessions made by the Emperor Francis were, however, very consi-

derable. To Bavaria were ceded Salzburg, and a portion of territory extending along the banks of the Danube, from Passau to the vicinity of Lintz : to France Austria gave up Fiume and Trieste, with the whole of the country to the south of the Saave till that river enters Bosnia : the King of Saxony obtained several villages in Bohemia, and, in Poland, the whole of Western Gallicia, from the frontiers of Silesia to the Bog, together with the city of Cracow, and a district round it in Eastern Gallicia. Russia obtained so much of this latter province as should contain 400,000 souls. With respect to external politics, the Emperor Francis agreed to acknowledge Joseph Buonaparte King of Spain ; to accede to the continental system ; and to break off all intercourse with Great Britain. The most mortifying condition of this treaty, however, was that by which the Austrian monarch gave up the inhabitants of the Tyrol to Bavaria ; with a provision, indeed, that Buonaparte should procure for them a complete and full pardon. In every part of Germany peace was now established, except in these mountains, the inhabitants of which, though abandoned by that power in whose favour they had risen in arms, and to whom they had manifested an attachment unbroken by sacrifices and sufferings, still refused submission to the conquerors : the brave Hofer, a man worthy of being a leader among a nation of heroes, animated and directed the actions of his countrymen ; and before him, untutored as he was in the art of war, the experienced troops of Europe fled in dismay. In vain did Buonaparte pour in fresh forces ; all his schemes were foiled ; and if, for a short time, the Tyrolese fled before his armies, or appeared not to oppose their progress, it was only to attack them to more advantage in the passes of the mountains, or

to fall on them when they were unprepared. On their conquest, however, Buonaparte was determined, and at length he effected his purpose, by pouring in continued reinforcements, and by the capture and infamous execution of the gallant Hofer.

Whilst Buonaparte was at Vienna, and within a few days of the great battle of Aspern, he caused proclamations to be made in that city, that from the 1st of June the Papal territory should be united with the French empire. The Pope solemnly protested against the violence and injustice by which he had been stripped of his temporal sovereignty, and, at the same time, issued an act of excommunication against the French emperor, and all his co-operators in this unprovoked spoliation; the thunders of the Vatican, however, had lost all their terrors; and an act, which three centuries ago would have roused to arms all the states of Europe, was now witnessed without one single effort on the part of the surrounding sovereigns.

It had frequently been intimated that Buonaparte intended to divorce Josephine, for the purpose of uniting himself with a younger and more noble bride, and his quarrel with the Pope, so far from impeding his object, relieved him from the necessity of asking a sanction which he was aware would have been refused. On the 16th of December, the design was formally announced to the conservative senate; the project of a decree was submitted to that assembly on the same day; and before the sitting terminated, the law authorising the divorce was enacted. Buonaparte explained to the assembly the motives by which he was actuated; and Josephine declared that she willingly consented to the divorce, to further the policy of her husband and the interests of the state.

A *proces verbal* was then drawn up, to which was annexed a decree, pronouncing the marriage contract between Buonaparte and Josephine to be dissolved.

At the commencement of the contest with Russia, the Swedes had displayed traits of heroism that would have reflected honour on the army of Charles the Twelfth; but, notwithstanding the liberal subsidy granted by Britain, neither the population nor the finances of Sweden were equal to the exigency of her present situation. The progress of the Russians in Finland, and the increasing calamities of the war, aggravated by the ravages of a contagious distemper, and the knowledge of the army that it was the fixed purpose of the king again to measure his strength with Russia and France, excited universal discontent; and a confederacy was formed against him, which terminated in his expulsion from the throne. This bloodless revolution, which took place on the 18th of March, 1809, was effected without commotion; and the diet being assembled at Stockholm, the Duke of Sudermania, uncle to Gustavus, was chosen regent, and afterwards king, under the title of Charles the Thirteenth. On ascending the throne of Sweden, he professed his determination not to consent to any peace with Russia that should be disgraceful to his country, or that should oblige her to take up arms against her faithful ally, Great Britain, and the war was accordingly renewed; misfortune, however, still attended the Swedish arms, and peace was at length purchased by the sacrifice of Finland. Soon after the conclusion of the treaty with Russia, negotiations were opened between Sweden and France, and, on the 6th of January, 1810, a treaty was concluded, by which Swedish Pomerania, with the principality of Rugen, was restored to Sweden; the former com-

mercial relations between the two countries were revived; and Buonaparte prevailed upon his new ally to adopt the continental system, and to exclude British commerce from the ports of the Baltic.

After the breaking out of the war between France and Austria, the English government made preparations for a formidable expedition, and 40,000 troops were assembled, with 35 sail of the line, and about 200 sail of smaller vessels. It was the intention of government to keep its destination secret; but long before its departure, the point of attack was generally known in England, and publicly announced in the French journals. The expedition was fitted out in the most complete manner, and the command of the army was conferred on the Earl of Chatham, a man unfortunately proverbial for indolence and inactivity: the naval part was under Sir Richard Strachan. On the 28th of July, the armament sailed from the Downs; and on the 1st of August, Flushing was invested. On the 13th the bombardment commenced, when the town and its inhabitants suffered dreadfully from Congreve's rockets, but the fortifications were little injured. On the 15th the French General Monnet, the commander, demanded a suspension of arms, which was succeeded by the surrender of the town, and the garrison, comprising more than 5000 troops, were made prisoners of war. Soon afterwards a rumour reached England that no ulterior operations would be undertaken, and it appeared that no decision on this point was made before the 27th of August, when Sir Richard Strachan, having waited upon Lord Chatham in person to learn his lordship's plans, was informed that he had come to the determination not to advance: The French, in the meantime, had not been inactive; and difficulties now presented themselves which might

have embarrassed a more able and active commander; every preparation was made to oppose the passage both of our army and navy; the interior of the Netherlands, and of France, as far as Paris, was stripped of the national guards; and an army, formidable for numbers, if not from discipline and experience, had actually been collected for the defence of Antwerp and the shipping; the naval stores were removed, and preparations were made for conveying the ships so high up the river, as to put them beyond the reach of either the invading army or navy. Lord Chatham, with a great proportion of the troops, at length returned to England; and the rest found it expedient to give up all their conquests but the island of Walcheren. This pestilential station it was, after much indecision, resolved to keep, for the purpose of shutting up the mouth of the Scheldt, and for enabling our merchants to introduce British merchandise into Holland; but from this island, the sole fruit of one of the most formidable and expensive expeditions ever sent from this country, we were doomed to be driven by an enemy more cruel and destructive than the French. A malady of the most fatal kind soon showed itself among the troops, and evinced the necessity for immediate recal; but it was not till the 13th of November, when a great proportion of the forces had either died of the prevailing epidemic, or been rendered incapable of performing their duty, that the fortifications were ordered to be destroyed; and on the 23d of December the island was evacuated in the sight of an enemy, who, aware that the ravages of disease would render attack unnecessary, had taken no measures to expel the invaders.

In the spring of 1809, the French fleet, consisting

of eight sail of the line and two frigates, escaped from Brest, and ran into the mouth of the Charente, where, joined by four sail of the line and two frigates, they anchored under the batteries; and Lord Cochrane, in the *Imperieuse*, being dispatched from England to attack them, a number of vessels, with a supply of Congreve's rockets, joined Lord Gambier's fleet, and the preparations for the attack were immediately begun. The fitting up and management of an explosion ship were intrusted to Lord Cochrane, who, with one lieutenant and four seamen, committed himself to this floating volcano. On the 11th of April the fire-ships, led on by Captain Wooldridge, and the explosion ship, bearing its small adventurous crew, proceeded to the attack, favoured by a strong northerly wind and the flood tide, when a boom stretched across the entrance was broken through, and the English advanced, undismayed by the heavy fire from the forts on the Isle of Aix. Lord Cochrane, having approached with his ship as near to the enemy as possible, set fire to the fusee, and, nine minutes after he had quitted her, she blew up, with a tremendous explosion. His lordship had no sooner reached his own ship, than he proceeded to attack the French vessels thrown into confusion or driven on shore, and sustained their fire for some time before any other man of war entered the harbour. Early on the 12th, Lord Cochrane announced by signal that seven of the enemy's ships were on shore, and might be destroyed; but the state of the wind rendering it hazardous to enter the roads, in which the water was shallow, with the large ships, Lord Gambier, who had unmoored, anchored again three miles from the forts, and sent all the small vessels for the attack. Lord Cochrane, leading the way, opened a fire on a ship of 56 guns,

which struck, and afterwards three others of the line were forced to strike, all of which were set on fire and destroyed. The other French ships, being got into deep water, moved up the river Charente, where it was impracticable to molest them, but it was unlikely that they could all be again got out to sea.

Towards the end of October, three sail of the line, four frigates, and twenty large transports, were dispatched from Toulon, under the French Admiral Baudin, to the relief of Barcelona, when Lord Collingwood gave orders to Admiral Martin to chase them. The sight of the English fleet was the signal for the flight of the French; and the line of battle ships, with one frigate, ran ashore between Cette and Frontignan, where they were burnt by their crews. The transports took refuge in the Bay of Rosas, where, under the shelter of an armed store-ship, two bombards, and a xebec, they seemed to regard themselves secure; but in this situation they were attacked by Captain Hallowell, who headed the boats of the English squadron, and, notwithstanding a gallant resistance, the whole were either burnt or brought off in the sight of thousands of spectators. In the West Indies, the island of Martinique, and the city of St. Domingo, were added to our numerous possessions; and the colony of Cayenne, under the government of Victor Hughes, fell an easy conquest to a combined attack made by English and Portuguese troops. In the east, the island of Bourbon surrendered to the English on the 21st of September; and, nearly about the same time, the small Grecian islands of Zante, Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Cerigo, acknowledged the British flag.

The difference between England and America this year assumed a more confirmed character, although both countries professed an anxious desire for the

revival of those amicable relations which had been so long interrupted. For the purpose of removing one of the most irritating parts of the British orders in council, they were modified, in the beginning of April, so as to permit neutral vessels to trade with any port whatever, except those in a state of actual blockade; and the blockade was confined to France, Holland, and the ports of Italy under the dominion of France. About the time that these regulations were issued, an assurance was given by the Hon. D. M. Erskine, the British minister to the United States, that the orders in council of January and November, 1807, would be withdrawn, as respected the United States, on the 10th of June, in the persuasion that the president would issue a proclamation for the renewal of the intercourse with Great Britain. In virtue of this assurance, Mr. Madison, who had succeeded Mr. Jefferson, as president, issued a proclamation on the following day, announcing that the trade between England and America would be renewed on the 10th of June. This pleasing prospect was dispelled by the discovery that the arrangements entered into by Erskine with the American government, were unauthorized by his instructions, and could not be carried into effect. Previously to this arrangement, the American government, finding the embargo to fall with a severe pressure upon every part of the community, had raised it as to all other nations, and substituted in its stead a system of non-intercourse and non-importation towards England and France. By this act of congress, all voyages to the British and French dominions, and all trade in articles of their manufacture, were prohibited; with the reservation, however, that if either of the belligerents should so revoke or modify her edicts, that they should cease to violate the com-

merce of the United States, the trade with that country should be renewed. A number of American vessels having sailed for Europe on the confidence which they placed in the unratified arrangement, the orders of council were suspended in their favour, and Mr. Jackson was appointed to succeed Mr. Erskine; but the discussions that ensued took such an unfavourable turn that he retired from Washington to New York, on its being notified that no farther communication from him would be received.

The ill success of many of the measures of ministers produced dissatisfaction in the nation, and variance among themselves; and on the 21st of September, a duel took place between Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning, two members of the cabinet, and secretaries of state, when, after firing a second time, Mr. Canning received his antagonist's ball in his right thigh. This duel was preceded by a letter from Lord Castlereagh to Mr. Canning, in which his lordship accused the foreign secretary of having clandestinely endeavoured to procure his removal from office, on the ground of incapacity for fulfilling its duties. Both of them, before the duel, resigned their offices, as did the Duke of Portland, on account of his age and infirmities; the remaining ministers made proposals to Lords Grey and Grenville, which were rejected, and, in consequence, Mr. Perceval took the office of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer; the Marquis of Wellesley was recalled from his embassy in Spain to succeed Mr. Canning in the foreign department; Lord Liverpool was transferred from the home to the department of war and colonies; Mr. Ryder was appointed to succeed Lord Liverpool; and Lord Palmerston was at the same time appointed secretary at war, in the room of Sir James Pulteney.

Though the events of this disastrous year injured the popularity of ministers, no part of the public displeasure fell upon their venerable monarch, who on the 25th of October commenced the 50th year of his reign. The day was celebrated as a jubilee, with thanksgivings, feasts, illuminations, and the liberation of prisoners for debt. These loyal demonstrations were mingled with a deep sympathy for the King, now labouring under the infirmities of age, and afflicted with almost total blindness, yet engaged in war against a power which had shaken every throne in Europe but his own.

Subsequently to the battle of Corunna, the attention and movements of the French were principally directed to the pursuit and discomfiture of the Spanish corps, which still occupied the centre of the kingdom, and to the occupation of such of the sea-ports in the north and east as kept open the communication with England, or that contained the Spanish navy. Accordingly, in the centre of Spain, Marshal Victor attacked and defeated the division of the Duc del Infantado's army, under the command of General Venegas; while, in the north, Soult advanced to Ferrol, and made himself master of that place, as well as the fleet moored in the harbour. The next place against which the operations of the French were directed was Oporto, and of this city, though defended by 24,000 troops, and 200 pieces of cannon, Soult possessed himself without encountering any formidable resistance.

Early in April, the principal Spanish and French armies occupied the following positions: the Marquis del Romana was at Villafranca; General Cuesta, having been joined by the division under the Duc d'Albuquerque, had halted in his retreat before the French

at Talavera; General Reding, having suffered severely in an attempt to surprise Barcelona, and in a succession of engagements near Tarragona, had been reinforced by the army of General Blake, and was, with that general, employed in opposing the progress of the French in Catalonia. Of the French forces, Soult was at Oporto; Ney in the neighbourhood of Corunna and Ferrol; and Victor was advancing towards Lisbon, by the route of Badajoz, with the Spanish force under General Cuesta in his front. The only engagement worthy of notice was fought between Marshal Victor and General Cuesta, at Medellín, a town of Estremadura, equi-distant from Merida and Truxillo. In this the patriots lost, according to the French accounts, 1400 men, in killed and wounded, with six standards, and the whole of their artillery.

Such was the state of affairs when Sir Arthur Wellesley sailed from Portsmouth on the 15th of April, and arrived at Lisbon on the 22d, to take the command of the British army, which, by reinforcements, sent principally from Ireland, had been increased to 30,000 men. Sir Arthur determined to dispossess the French, under Soult, of the city of Oporto, and with this view he assembled the British army at Coimbra on the 7th of May, and advanced towards the Douro. Soult, aware of the magnitude of the opposing force, withdrew the main body of his army, and Oporto fell into the hands of the British almost without resistance. Sir Arthur Wellesley, having placed that city in a proper state of defence, returned to the south of Portugal, to protect Lisbon and its vicinity from the French army, which was advancing along the Tagus, under Marshal Victor.

In the north-east of Spain, prodigies of valour had

been displayed ; the second siege of Saragossa rivalled the first, and will for ever occupy a distinguished place in the military annals of the country. After the fall of that city, an attempt was made by General Blake to regain it, but in this he entirely failed, and the Spanish army under his command became exposed to a fatal and inglorious defeat at Belchite.

Sir Arthur Wellesley having concerted a plan with General Cuesta to attack the central French armies, and obtain possession of Madrid, a junction of their forces took place in the neighbourhood of Plasencia on the 20th of July, and the combined army, amounting to about 60,000 men, of which 20,000 were British, proceeded to Talavera. On the 25th, Joseph Buonaparte and General Sebastiani formed a junction with Marshal Victor at Toledo, by which their force amounted to 47,000 men ; and it was now obvious that they intended to try the result of a general action. In the afternoon of the 27th the enemy crossed the Alberche, and cannonaded the left of the British position, while their cavalry attacked the Spanish infantry, hoping to break the ranks, and carry the town ; but they were bravely resisted, and finally repulsed. Early in the evening Marshal Victor pushed a division along the valley, on the left of a height occupied by General Hill, which he considered the key of the British position ; and his efforts to obtain this eminence corresponded with the estimation in which it was held. For a moment the attack was successful ; but General Hill instantly charged the assailants with the bayonet, and regained the post. The French repeated their attack about midnight, but they were again repulsed with great slaughter. Both armies passed the night on the field, and several partial engagements were fought before the ensuing dawn. The French having

ascertained that any attack upon the town, posted as the Spaniards were, was hopeless, at day-break on the 28th, General Ruffin advanced with three regiments in close columns against the eminence occupied by General Hill; but here again they were resisted by the bayonet, and driven back, leaving the field covered with their slain. About eleven o'clock, the enemy, finding himself baffled in all his efforts, suspended the attack, and dined upon the field of battle. Wine and bread were at the same time served out to the British troops, and during this pause in the work of destruction, the men in both armies repaired to a brook to quench their thirst, and stooped to the stream in the presence of each other without molestation: numbers of them even shook hands across the brook before the battle recommenced. At noon, Victor ordered a general attack along the whole line, and directed his own three divisions against General Hill's position; but they were driven back, and their retrograde movement exposed Sebastiani's right, which suffered severely. Their general at length rallied them, and some columns under Vilatte advanced to their support. General Anson's brigade, consisting of the 1st German light dragoons and 23d dragoons, with General Fane's brigade of heavy cavalry, were ordered to charge them, when the British suffered dreadfully, and the 23d were almost annihilated; but though they failed in breaking the enemy, they deterred him from any farther attempt against the hill. The attack upon the centre, which commenced at the same time, was gallantly resisted by General Campbell, supported by the Spaniards, who turned the flank of the assailants, while the English took their cannon. General Sherbrooke repelled the force opposed to him by a charge of bayonets from the whole division; but

the brigade of guards, advancing too far, exposed themselves to the fire of the hostile batteries and retiring columns. At this moment, when the fate of the battle appeared worse than doubtful, Sir Arthur Wellesley secured the victory, by moving from the heights a battalion of the 48th, which, with the assistance of Cotton's brigade of cavalry, enabled the guards to retreat under cover. At the close of day the enemy were repulsed at all points, and retreated in good order across the Alberche, leaving 20 pieces of cannon in the hands of the combined army. The loss on both sides was severe; that of the enemy, who had entire brigades of infantry destroyed, was estimated by the English commander at 10,000 men. On the same authority it is stated that the British had 800 killed, 3900 wounded, and 650 missing, exclusive of the loss of the Spaniards, which amounted to 1250 in killed and wounded. For this achievement the thanks of Parliament were voted to the officers and men, and the commander was elevated to the peerage by the title of Viscount Wellington.

The English army had scarcely time to congratulate itself on this victory, before intelligence arrived that Soult, Ney, and Mortier, had advanced through Estremadura, and were already in their rear. A retreat was now indispensable, and, as no doubt could be entertained that Victor's army would again advance as soon as he heard of the approach of the French forces through Estremadura, Cuesta was left at Talavera, where it was hoped he might be able to maintain his position; but, in any event, it was understood that he should by no means abandon the wounded. On the 3d of August the British force marched to Oropesa, on the way to Plasencia, with an intention to attack the force under Soult, and in the evening Sir Arthur

Wellesley received information that Cuesta meant to quit Talavera immediately ; and that, for want of conveyance, he should be obliged to abandon his hospitals. Surrounded by difficulties, with an army of 30,000 men under Soult pressing upon him from the north, and with an army equally strong under Victor advancing from the east, the British general determined to retreat, and to take up a position at Deleytosa, on the way to Truxillo. Here he remained unmolested by the French, and was enabled to recruit his army ; but finding that the Junta were by no means disposed to supply the wants which had prevented his pursuit of the French before the battle of Talavera, he retreated to Badajoz, where, during the remainder of the year, his army continued inactive, and exposed, from the unhealthiness of the situation, to the ravages of a fatal epidemic.

Soon after the battle of Talavera General Venegas, at the head of the army of La Mancha, consisting of about 30,000 men, was defeated near Toledo by Sebastiani, and superseded in the command by the Marquis of Areizaga, who, having reassembled the forces and increased them to the number of 50,000, advanced upon Madrid, and on the 19th of November was defeated at Ocana with great loss. The French soon afterwards reduced Cordova and Seville, and thus laid open the road to Cadiz. In Old Castile the Duke del Parque, at the head of 30,000 men, after repulsing the French at Alba de Tormes, retreated to the mountains of Faenza, on the borders of Galicia. In Catalonia, Blake was unable to make head against the French army under Augereau, to whom Gerona, after a long and heroic defence, capitulated on the 10th of December.

After the battle of Ocana, the French, under Soult,

assisted by Victor and Mortier, and accompanied by Joseph Buonaparte in person, advanced into the South of Spain; and having, on the 20th of January, 1810, forced the passes of the Sierra Morena almost without resistance, they established their head-quarters at Baylen. Sebastiani, with his division, overran Grenada, and took possession of Malaga. Victor occupied Seville on the 10th of February, the supreme Junta assembled there having previously retired to the Isle of Leon, near Cadiz. This last refuge of Spanish independence had been exposed to the greatest danger through their vacillation or treachery, and it was saved by a remarkably rapid march of the Duke of Albuquerque, at the head of 8000 men, from Estremadura. On his arrival at Cadiz he found that the Junta, who were suspected of a design to make terms with Joseph, had been deposed, and the supreme authority vested in a regency. The most vigorous preparations were now made for defence; all persons capable of bearing arms were enrolled; British troops arrived from Lisbon and Gibraltar; and the Spanish fleet, amounting to 20 sail of the line, was moored in the harbour, under the direction of the British Admiral Purvis, who brought in his own squadron. The French occupied the shores of the bay, and endeavoured to annoy the shipping and the town, but they did not venture a regular attack upon the Isle of Leon; they, however, took Fort Matagorda, situate about two miles from the city, after it had been bravely defended for two months by a body of British soldiers and sailors.

In Catalonia, the Spanish General O'Donnell, who had collected a considerable force for the purpose of raising the siege of Hostalric, was defeated on the plain of Vich after an obstinate engagement; and

after a brave resistance of four months the castle of Hostalric was taken, by which the French secured the communication between Gerona and Barcelona. In June they captured the important fortresses of Lerida and Mequinenza; but Tortosa, which was besieged immediately afterwards, did not surrender until the commencement of the following year. Valencia, for the surprise of which a plan was concerted between Suchet and some traitors within the city, was defended by a brother of the Marquis of Romana, General Caro, who marched out to attack the French, and defeated them with great slaughter. In the south 6000 French, stationed at Ronda, were surprised by a detachment from Algesiras, under General Lacy, and fled in disorder, leaving their arms and ammunition, which were distributed among the mountaineers. The spirit of resistance spreading to the frontiers of Murcia, Sebastiani was ordered into that province, where he compelled the Spaniards to retire to Alicante. In August a French force, posted at Moguer, in the province of Seville, was expelled by a body of Spaniards and English, who, on the approach of a hostile reinforcement, returned to Cadiz. Another expedition, undertaken against Malaga in October, proved unsuccessful, and Lord Blaney, who commanded the troops, was taken prisoner.

In the month of April the British cabinet made an attempt to rescue the person of Ferdinand out of the hands of Napoleon. The person employed in this mission was an Irish adventurer of the name of Kelly, and the plan, it appears, was concerted with the Marquis Wellesley, the English secretary of state for foreign affairs, who had placed at Kelly's disposal a squadron off Quiberon, whence the prince was to embark. Having made his way to Valencay, the

residence, or rather the place of imprisonment, of Ferdinand, Kelly endeavoured to speak with the prince, to effect which he disclosed his intentions to the Infante, Don Antonio, and to Amazaga, the intendant of the royal prisoner's household, but Ferdinand, on being acquainted with Kelly's visit, sent for Berthemy, the governor of the castle, and with great emotion informed him that an English emissary had found his way into the castle, and that he was furnished with ample credentials to show that he came from the British government. Kelly was, in consequence, placed under arrest, and the vigilance of the French governor over the person and suite of the imbecile monarch, if possible, increased.

Lord Wellington, after the battle of Talavera, determined to direct and confine his operations to the defence of Portugal till a more auspicious state of affairs should arise; and as the force which this country could send into the Peninsula was small, in comparison with the immense armies of France, and as the Portuguese troops could not at first be expected to equal the British, it was expedient to act where inequality of numbers would be compensated by local and artificial strength, and where he would possess the best means of supplying and increasing his force. Lord Wellington accordingly determined to make his stand within the lines of Torres Vedras, a position capable of being rendered impregnable: lying near the Tagus, his army could receive reinforcements and supplies readily from England, and his vicinity to the sea would enable him, in case of exigency, to embark without delay. The French general, on the other hand, would be in the very heart of a hostile country, the inhabitants of which were neither disposed nor able to supply his wants; and, from the nature of the

war in the Peninsula, it would be extremely difficult to procure the supplies from any great distance. To gain time for improving the lines of Torres Vedras, Lord Wellington determined to retard the progress of the enemy as much as possible, without hazarding a general engagement, and, in furtherance of this plan, he advanced, at the commencement of the summer, to the north-eastern frontier of Portugal, his force consisting at that time of about 30,000 British, and nearly 60,000 Spanish and Portuguese.

In the beginning of July the hostile armies were posted as follows: a small French corps was stationed before Badajoz, watched by the Spanish army of Romana, consisting of 9000 men, and by General Hill, with a British force, amounting to about 5000. The grand French army under Massena, composed of the divisions of Soult and of Ney, and of large reinforcements brought from France, was posted before Ciudad Rodrigo, which fortress he determined to take before he advanced further into Portugal. The headquarters of the English army were in front of Celerico, where the first division, under General Spencer, was stationed; the second, under General Hill, was at Portalegra; the third, commanded by General Cole, was cantoned at Garda; the fourth, under General Picton, was at Pinhel; and the light division, under General Crawford, including two regiments of Portuguese caçadores or marksmen, was advanced close to the French army at Ciudad Rodrigo. Each division had attached to it some Portuguese regiments, with one or more English officers in them, and by whose efforts they had been brought into such order and discipline, that it was reasonably expected they would, in the hour of trial, not disgrace their companions in the field.

After the fall of Ciudad Rodrigo, which was defended with great bravery, and did not surrender till the fortress was no longer defensible, Massena advanced to the siege of Almeida, and opened his trenches before this fortress on the 15th of August. While a false attack was made against the north of the town, 2000 men dug the first parallel to a depth of three feet; and on Sunday the 26th, at five o'clock in the morning, eleven batteries, mounted with 65 pieces of cannon, opened their fire. The garrison consisted of 5000 men, of whose spirit no doubt was entertained; the city was well provided; and its works had been placed in so respectable a state, that Lord Wellington felt assured of the enemy being detained till late in the season. This expectation, however, was frustrated by one of those casualties which sometimes disconcert the wisest plans. On the night after the batteries opened, the large powder magazine in the citadel blew up with a tremendous explosion. More than half the artillerymen, a great number of the garrison, and many of the inhabitants, perished; the guns were dismounted, and the works no longer defensible. The necessary and almost immediate consequence was the surrender of the place, and all the troops in the garrison were made prisoners of war. On the fall of Almeida, Massena advanced further into Portugal, and Lord Wellington, who retreated slowly before him, towards Coimbra, resolved to take up a position on the Sierra de Busaco, and there to resist the advance of the French army. In this retreat the severe but efficacious policy was adopted of rendering all the country in the line of march quite inhospitable to the French, by stripping it of all its inhabitants, with the whole of their moveable property, and by destroying what could not be carried off. The British and Portuguese

troops were posted along the ridge of the mountain or Sierra, extending nearly eight miles, and forming the segment of a circle, whose extreme points embraced every part of the enemy's position, and whence every movement below could be distinctly observed. On the 26th of September, the light troops on both sides were engaged throughout the line, and, at six o'clock on the following morning, the divisions of Ney and Regnier made two desperate attacks upon Lord Wellington's position, one on the right, the other on the left of the highest point of the Sierra. Ney's division gained the top of the ridge, but was driven back with the bayonet; and another, further to the right, was repulsed before it could reach the top of the mountain. On the left, the attack was made by three divisions, only one of which made any progress towards the summit, and this force, being charged with the bayonet, was driven down with immense loss. The Portuguese soldiers established this day their character for courage and discipline: they were worthy, Lord Wellington said, to contend in the same ranks with British troops, in that good cause which they afforded the best hopes of saving. The enemy, thus repulsed in his attempts to open a passage for his further advance into Portugal, accomplished by a manœuvre what force had failed to effect. On the evening of the 28th Lord Wellington observed the French army silently moving round the northern edge of the Sierra, towards Coimbra, which obliged him to quit Busaco, and retreat to the left bank of the Mondego. In the afternoon of the 30th the French advanced guard appeared in the front of Coimbra, and the next day Lord Wellington fell back upon Leyria, and from thence to the lines of Torres Vedras.

So perfectly convinced was the French general

that the retreat of Lord Wellington was for the purpose of embarking at Lisbon, and that his sole object should be immediate and close pursuit, that he abandoned his wounded at Coimbra, with little or no protection, and advanced, without taking the precaution to form and establish magazines. On his arrival at Torres Vedras, after reconnoitring the British line, he found their position to be impregnable, and here the error he had committed, in making so incautious an advance, became manifest. These lines, strong by nature, and greatly improved by art, extended to a distance of 35 miles, flanked, on one side, by the sea, and on the other by the Tagus. The British army consisted of 80,000 efficient troops; besides 25,000 Portuguese regulars, 40,000 militia, and about 10,000 Spaniards. This army was formed into four divisions, each occupying one of the four passes of the mountains. The French force, when they reached the vicinity of Torres Vedras, could not consist of more than 60,000 men, harassed by fatigue, straitened for provisions, and without magazines in their rear; and when the relative strength and situation of the two armies was known in England, the destruction of the enemy was regarded as inevitable. Massena, however, kept his position in front of Torres Vedras till the 14th of November, when, being constrained to seek better quarters for the winter, he marched for Santarem. On the next morning the allied army broke up, and followed the march of the enemy, hoping that the time for his destruction had now arrived; but, on examining his position, it was not judged advisable to make an attack; Lord Wellington therefore contented himself with fixing his head-quarters at Cartaxo, about ten miles nearer Lisbon, and in these positions the two armies remained at the close of the year 1810.

CHAPTER XXXII.

Parliament assembled on the 23d of January, 1810, and the opening speech, which was read by commission, turned principally upon the peace concluded between Austria and France, the disastrous expedition to Walcheren; the precarious state of our relations with Sweden; and the necessity of affording further assistance to Spain and Portugal. The debates on the address, which related chiefly to the conduct of the war in Spain, were followed by votes of thanks to Lord Wellington and his army, for the skill and gallantry displayed in the battle of Talavera: and these discussions were succeeded by a motion by Lord Porchester, for an inquiry into the policy and conduct of the late expedition to Walcheren. His lordship moved for the appointment of a committee—not a select and secret committee, he said, before whom garbled extracts might be laid by ministers themselves, in order to produce a partial decision, but a committee of the whole House, by which oral evidence might be examined at the bar. This motion was opposed by ministers, but was carried against them by a majority of 195 to 186. On the 1st of February, the day before the investigation commenced, Mr. Yorke gave notice that he should, during the inquiry, enforce the standing order of the House, for the exclusion of strangers. Mr. Sheridan deprecated the idea of proceeding in an investigation, in which the nation was so deeply interested, with closed doors, and asked, whether it could be endured that the people should be kept in complete ignorance of what Parliament was doing at one of the most awful moments of its existence. A majority of members, however, 166 to 80, decided that the stand-

ing order for the exclusion of strangers should remain unaltered. Amongst the papers laid before Parliament was a "copy of the Earl of Chatham's statement of his proceedings," dated the 15th of October, 1809, presented to the King on the 14th of February, 1810. The tenor of the narrative was to impute blame to the naval part of the expedition, and his lordship represented its failure to have arisen, either from insufficient arrangements on the part of the Admiral, Sir Richard Strachan, or from unavoidable difficulties, inherent in the nature of the expedition itself, which, being entirely of a naval nature, did not come within his province. The presenting of such a document to the sovereign by a military commander, without the intervention of any responsible minister, and without the knowledge of the accused party, was deprecated as a clandestine and unconstitutional attempt to poison the royal ear; and a motion made by Mr. Whitbread for an address to his Majesty, praying that copies of all papers submitted to him by the Earl of Chatham, at any time, concerning the expedition to the Scheldt, might be laid before that House, was carried, in opposition to ministers, by a majority of seven voices. This proceeding was followed by a vote of censure, proposed by Mr. Whitbread, and amended by Mr. Canning, in which Lord Chatham was pronounced highly reprehensible for the communication made to his Majesty; and his lordship, to avoid an address to the King for his removal, resigned his office of master-general of the ordnance. The examination of evidence upon the Walcheren expedition occupied the House from the 2d of February to the 26th of March, when Lord Porchester moved two series of resolutions, to the effect, that the expedition was undertaken under cir-

cumstances which afforded no rational hope of adequate success, and at the precise season of the year when the disease which had proved so fatal was known to be most prevalent; that the advisers of that ill-judged enterprise were therefore highly reprehensible for the calamities with which its failure had been attended; and that their conduct in delaying the evacuation of Walcheren called for the severest censure. After four nights' debate, there appeared, for Lord Porchester's resolutions, 227, and against them, 275 voices. The House next decided upon an amendment of General Crawford's, purporting, that though the House considered with regret the lives which had been lost, it was of opinion that his Majesty's ministers had proceeded upon good grounds in undertaking the expedition, which amendment was carried by a majority of 40 voices. The second set of resolutions, censuring ministers for delaying the evacuation of Walcheren, was negatived by 275 against 224; and a resolution, approving their conduct for retaining the island till the time it was abandoned, was carried by 255 against 232.

The exclusion of strangers from the House of Commons during this enquiry excited much public observation, and the conduct of Mr. Yorke, who moved it, and of Mr. Windham, who made some unpopular observations on the practice of reporting debates in the newspapers, being canvassed in some instances with too much freedom, Mr. Yorke, on the 19th of February, complained of a breach of privilege, his conduct in that assembly having been made the subject of discussion in a speaking club called the British Forum, and on the 21st, John Gale Jones, the manager of the society, was summoned to the bar, and committed to Newgate. Though several members

expressed their doubts of the policy of his commitment, the power of the House to do so was denied by Sir Francis Burdett alone, who, not having been present at the former debate, moved, on the 12th of March, for the discharge of Jones, on the ground that the House had exceeded its authority, which was negatived by 158 against 14. The speech delivered on this occasion, Sir Francis published in a periodical paper on the 24th, with a letter prefixed, addressed to his constituents, "denying the power of the House of Commons to imprison the people of England." In consequence of this publication, it was moved by Mr. Lethbridge, and decided by a majority of the House, that he had been guilty of publishing a scandalous and libellous paper, reflecting upon their just rights and privileges, and a motion for his commitment to the Tower was made by Sir Robert Salisbury, and carried, after a long and animated debate, by a majority of 190 to 152 voices. The division did not take place till seven o'clock on the morning of Friday, the 6th of April, when the speaker signed the warrant, and delivered it to the serjeant at arms. That officer was informed by Sir Francis that he would be ready to receive him on the next morning, which being viewed by the serjeant as implying that he would go peaceably to the Tower, he retired. Sir Francis, however, alleging the illegality of the warrant, refused to go unless constrained by actual force, which he was determined to resist. After taking the opinion of the attorney-general, the serjeant, accompanied by a number of police officers, and a detachment of troops, forced an entry into his house, and conveyed him to the Tower. As the escort which guarded the prisoner was on its return, a numerous mob attacked them with stones and brickbats, and

some shots were fired, by which two or three lives were lost, and several wounded; the mob assembled round the house of Sir Francis also committed many outrages in the neighbourhood. On the 10th a letter sent by Sir Francis to the speaker, after the receipt of his warrant, became a topic of debate, and a resolution was unanimously passed, declaring it a high and flagrant breach of the privileges of the House.

Sir Francis Burdett commenced actions against the Speaker of the House of Commons, for issuing the warrant for his arrest and imprisonment; against the serjeant-at-arms, for executing the warrant generally, and for breaking open the outer door of his house in its execution; and against Earl Moira, the Governor of the Tower, for illegal imprisonment, in all which he failed, the plea that the warrant, being issued by the authority of the House of Commons, was a legal instrument, and that therefore the arrest and imprisonment were legal, being admitted. Thus the attempt to overthrow this branch of the privilege of Parliament served to confirm it, and gave to the claims of the House of Commons a solemn judicial recognition.

Mr. Horner, on the 1st of February, moved for a variety of returns respecting the present state of the circulating medium, and the trade in bullion, on the production of which a committee was appointed for the purpose of inquiry into the present high price of bullion, and its effect on the value of the paper currency. The committee were of opinion, that the evils complained of were to be attributed to an excessive issue of Bank of England paper; and it was stated in their report, that "a general rise of all prices, a rise in the market price of gold, and a fall in the foreign exchanges, will be the effect of an undue quantity of circulating medium in a country which

has adopted a currency not exportable to other countries, or convertible at will into a coin that is convertible." It was added, that no sufficient remedy for the present evil, or security for the future, could be pointed out, except the repeal of the law which suspended the cash payments of the Bank, to effect which the committee was aware that some difficulties must be encountered ; but all hazards to the stability of the Bank, and all injury to public credit, might be obviated, by restricting cash payments for two years from the present time, and by intrusting to the Bank itself the charge of conducting and completing the operation.

On the 16th of May the budget was brought forward, and the supplies voted for the year amounted to 52,185,000*l.* of which the proportion for Ireland was 6,106,000*l.* The ways and means, without the imposition of any new taxes, were estimated at a surplus of 141,202*l.* over the demand, including, however, a loan of 8,000,000*l.* which was borrowed at the favourable rate of 4*l.* 4*s.* 3½*d.* *per cent.* The foreign subsidies were 400,000*l.* for Sicily, and 980,000*l.* for Portugal; and a vote of credit was passed for 3,000,000*l.* Mr. Perceval stated that the official value of the imports was nearly 5,000,000*l.* more than in the most prosperous year of peace; that the exports of our manufactures exceeded in amount those of 1802 by 8,000,000*l.*; and that though there was a diminution of nearly 4,000,000*l.* in the exports of foreign goods, yet the average was highly favourable to the country. He added, that the orders of council had already reduced the receipts of the customs in France from 2,500,000*l.* to 500,000*l.* being a diminution of four-fifths of their whole amount.

Petitions from the Catholics were presented to both

Houses, and gave rise to protracted discussions, but were rejected by considerable majorities. Several measures of reform experienced a similar fate. A bill, introduced by Mr. Bankes, for rendering perpetual the act preventing the grant of offices in reversion, was rejected by the Lords. Mr. Brand's motion for a committee to inquire into the state of the representation, and into the means of rendering it complete, was negatived by a great majority. Various alterations were proposed by Sir Samuel Romilly in the criminal code; and it was unanimously resolved, that the subject of penitentiary houses should be taken into consideration in the next session. Addresses were voted in both Houses, on the motion of Lord Holland and Mr. Brougham, beseeching his Majesty to persevere in his endeavours to induce foreign nations to co-operate in the abolition of the slave trade. The latter, with great ability and eloquence, exposed the practices of certain persons, even in this country, who carried on that traffic in a clandestine and fraudulent manner; and a resolution for taking into consideration, early in the next session, such measures as might tend to prevent those daring violations of the law, was unanimously adopted.

A communication was made to the House of Commons by Mr. Bragge Bathurst, from which it appeared that Captain Warwick Lake, of the navy, had thought fit to punish a seaman, named Jefferies, accused of theft, by placing him on the uninhabited island of Sombrero. An inquiry was instituted by the lords of the admiralty; and Captain Lake, being tried by a court-martial, was sentenced to be dismissed from his Majesty's service. It afterwards appeared, by accounts received from America, that Jefferies, after remaining nine days on the island, had been rescued from a lin-

gering death by a vessel belonging to the United States.

The 12th report of the commissioners of military inquiry disclosed a flagrant instance of public delinquency. It appeared that Joseph Hunt, Esq. M. P. and late treasurer of the board of ordnance, had been guilty of a violation of the act for regulating the office, and had misapplied certain sums of public money to a considerable amount, and it was unanimously resolved, on the motion of Mr. Calcraft, that for those offences he should be expelled from the House. The defaulter had, on the plea of ill health, emigrated to Lisbon.

On the 13th of June, when the session was drawing nigh to a close, Earl Grey submitted to the consideration of the House of Peers a motion on the state of the nation, which was rejected by 134 against 72. This was the last subject of importance that engaged the attention of either House; and, on the 21st, Parliament was prorogued.

The Dutch settlement of Amboyna, with its dependencies, was carried by a *coup de main* in February, by an expedition under Captain Tucker, who obtained a rich booty; and the chief of the spice islands, Banda, with its dependencies, surrendered unconditionally to Captain Cole, of the Carolina frigate, who conducted the attack with uncommon gallantry and skill. The island of Bourbon, and the Mauritius, or isle of France, having long afforded shelter to a large number of French privateers, which had captured East India shipping to an enormous amount, expeditions were planned against them. The isle of Bourbon was first attacked, for which purpose a large force was collected under Lieutenant-Colonel Keating and Commodore Rowley, who were preparing for an assault on St. Dennis, the principal town, when a herald presented himself with a

proposal from the governor for a capitulation, which was readily acquiesced in, and, two days afterwards, the whole island submitted. A body of troops from India and the Cape of Good Hope, amounting to about 10,000, destined for the reduction of the isle of France, arrived at the place of rendezvous in November, under Major-general John Abercrombie; Admiral Bertie commanded the naval force. On the 29th the troops effected a landing, and on the 2d of December, prepared for attacking the forts; but on the day following, General de Caen, the French governor, proposed to capitulate, on condition that the troops should return to France without being considered as prisoners of war. These terms it was thought advisable to allow, and on the same day the capitulation was signed, by which the isle of France, an immense quantity of stores and valuable merchandise, 5 large frigates, some smaller ships of war, and 28 merchantmen, with 2 captured British East Indiamen, were surrendered to his Majesty's arms.

In the West Indies, the island of Guadaloupe, the last that remained to the French in that part of the world, surrendered, on the 5th of February, to a combined naval and military force, under Admiral Sir Alexander Cochrane, and Lieutenant-general Sir George Beckwith; and in the Ionian sea, the island of Santa Maura, the ancient Leucadia, was taken on the 16th of April, by an armament from Zante, under Captain Eyre of the *Magnificent*, and Brigadier-general Oswald, after a vigorous resistance, the fortress being carried by storm, and the garrison, about 700 in number, made prisoners of war.

One of the most important events of this year was the marriage of Buonaparte to the Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria;—to which his divorce from Jose-

phine, in the close of 1809, was the prelude. On the 27th of February he announced to the senate that he had dispatched his cousin, the Prince of Neuchâtel (Berthier), to demand for him the hand of the daughter of the Emperor Francis, agreeably to a contract that had been made, and which is supposed to have been a secret article in the treaty of peace. The marriage took place at Vienna on the 11th of March, the Archduke Charles receiving the hand of his niece, as representative of his old antagonist; and on the 18th the new empress set off on her way to Paris, where the ceremony was repeated, on her arrival, with every mark of imperial grandeur, on the 1st of April. The train of the bride was supported by four queens; and after the marriage was concluded, Buonaparte conducted her to St. Cloud, where, three days afterwards, they received the congratulations of the senate. It was at first conceived that the archduchess was an unwilling, though resigned, victim to the preservation of her family, but it soon appeared that she was delighted with her conquest over the man who had conquered Europe, while Napoleon equally felicitated himself in a connexion which seemed to secure the perpetuity of his new dynasty.

Proceeding in his plans of encroachment, Buonaparte seized the seven Dutch provinces, which in 1806 he had formed into a kingdom, in favour of his brother Louis. From that period, indeed, they had been no better than a dependency upon France; but in some things Louis had not shown himself sufficiently obsequious, especially in the restrictions upon commerce. On the 1st of July he resigned his nominal dignity in favour of his two sons, declaring his queen regent, and, in a farewell address to the legislative body, he stated the circumstances that had ren-

dered it necessary for him to sign a treaty with his brother the emperor, whereby he had been deprived of all authority. He advised them to receive the French with respect and cordiality; he expressed a warm affection for his late subjects; and, indeed, throughout his short reign, he always appeared as the friend of the people upon whom he had been arbitrarily imposed. It does not appear to have been the wish, and certainly was not the policy, of Buonaparte to deprive his brother of the regal state to which he had raised him, if he could have made him subservient to his ruling passion of ruining the commerce of Great Britain, or obtaining what he called a maritime peace, by the revocation of the English orders in council. With this view he had, towards the close of 1809, sent for Louis to Paris, and after many conferences, Louis reported to his ministers that there could no longer be any independence or national existence for Holland, should the maritime war be continued; and as it was possible that the cabinet of London, rather than suffer its annexation to the French empire, might be induced to make peace with France, or to change its measures with respect to neutral commerce, he directed them to send to England some discreet man of business, to urge the advantages of the independence of Holland to that country. In conformity with this message, which could only be considered as coming from Napoleon himself, Mynheer Peter Cœsar Labouchère was sent over, on the 2d of February, 1809, and he arrived in London on the 16th, where he had several conferences with the Marquis of Wellesley, who told him, that while the Milan and Berlin decrees remained in force, it was not to be expected that we should relax our efforts for self-defence: the

orders in council were not the cause, but the consequence of those decrees; and even were the latter promised to be recalled, it would not be convenient for England to admit, in principle, that the British measures of reprisals should be discontinued as soon as the cause that provoked them should be removed. This answer convinced the Dutchman that he had nothing to hope from his mission; and in his letter home he could not help observing, that attempts on the part of hostile nations to bring back the English government to other ideas, would probably have the contrary effect. * The negotiation having thus failed, the annexation was determined upon; the abdication of Louis in favour of his children was considered of no validity, not having been previously concerted with the emperor; and the seven provinces of the ancient Dutch republic were merged in the French empire.

Other annexations were those of the Valais, for the purpose of securing the passage of the Alps by the mountain of Simplon, through which a road had been making during the preceding ten years; and of the Hanse Towns, with the whole territory between the Elbe and the Ems. The electorate of Hanover, also, was annexed to the kingdom of Westphalia, and to that, as well as to all the other dependent kingdoms, the conscription laws were extended. In France itself, the chains of despotic power were riveted by spies, imprisonment, a rigorous police, and restrictions on the liberty of the press. The most violent decrees were made for seizing and burning English merchandise, which were carried into execution with great rigour in the Hanse Towns, in France, Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Prussia, and Denmark; while the holding of any intercourse with Great Bri-

tain, or with British ships, was made felony in the captain of any vessel, who was accordingly liable to be punished with death ; the owner of the ship was to be branded ; and minor degrees of punishment were denounced against all who should be in the least concerned in this prohibited traffic, down to the meanest porter. The King of Prussia, dejected by the curtailment of his power, and by the death of his beautiful and high-spirited queen, viewed all these changes with apparent unconcern. In Italy, the ecclesiastics, by their influence, still maintained the supremacy of the pope ; and a greater concourse than ordinary of that order having been remarked at Rome, an ordinance was issued, that they should immediately repair to the usual places of their respective residences ; and on symptoms of dissatisfaction being manifested in the ecclesiastical states, a French corps, 20,000 strong, was collected in the vicinity of Rome, and the churches and other public buildings were converted into barracks for its accommodation.

In Sweden the influence of France was strengthened by an event which may be ranked among the most extraordinary occurrences of the year. The Duke of Sudermania, who, it will be recollected, had been called to the throne in 1809 by the name of Charles the Thirteenth, being at an advanced age, and without children, had deemed it necessary that a successor to the throne should be nominated ; and the states had accordingly elected Christian Augustus, Prince of Augustenberg, a subject of Denmark, who repaired to Stockholm in January, 1810, and took the oath of fidelity to the Swedish monarch. On the 29th of May, while reviewing some regiments of cavalry, he was suddenly taken ill, and falling from his horse, soon expired. His death was attributed to poison ;

and on the 20th of June, when his funeral procession was passing through the streets of Stockholm, the populace rose upon Count Fersen, in the presence of a regiment of guards, and barbarously murdered him. On the 15th of August the states were assembled at Orebro, for the election of another successor to the throne. The candidates were, the eldest son of the deposed Gustavus the Fourth; the Prince of Holstein, elder brother of the deceased Prince of Augustenberg; the King of Denmark; and the French Marshal Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, a soldier of fortune, who had married into Buonaparte's family. The election took place on the 21st of August, when the latter was unanimously chosen Crown-prince of Sweden, and an ambassador was dispatched to Paris, to announce the decision to the emperor and to the prince elect. On his arrival in Sweden, Bernadotte, who had acquired great wealth, and was liberal in the employment of it, endeavoured by every possible means to ingratiate himself with the nation, and to acquire its confidence; he professed to change his religion, and to adopt the Lutheran tenets of the Swedish church; and on the 1st of November he was installed, in the presence of the assembled diet, when he addressed the states in a judicious speech, adapted to the occasion.

Shortly afterwards, the Swedish government, at the requisition of Buonaparte, declared its adherence to his continental system, prohibited all intercourse with the British dominions, and interdicted the importation of colonial produce. The Danes were also active in fitting out frigates and gun-boats for annoying the trade of Great Britain in the Baltic; but although they had considerable success, they could not prevent the English from taking possession of the island of

Anholt, in the Cattegat, as a depositary for prohibited merchandise.

In the beginning of July, this year, Joachim Murat, the newly-created King of Naples, had collected a powerful armament on the coast of Calabria, consisting of 37,000 troops, 208 gun-boats, and 700 boats of other descriptions, for the invasion of Sicily. The British commander, Sir John Stuart, made the best preparations in his power for resisting the threatened attack, by disposing all his troops, about 15,000 in number, along the shore, with a chain of communications, and guarding the whole coast by batteries and gun-boats. The Neapolitan army was encamped on the heights above the castle of Sylla, and the gun-boats and small craft lay at anchor, under cover of heavy batteries, which continually threw shot and shells into the British quarters in Sicily. Daily skirmishes took place between the Sicilian flotilla, prepared by Sir John Stuart, and that of King Joachim. Generally speaking, this was rather productive of a superb spectacle, than of any serious injury to either side; though in the course of repeated attacks upon the Neapolitan flotilla, great numbers of the vessels were destroyed, taken, or dispersed. On the 18th of September, a debarkation of about 3500 men, Neapolitans and Corsicans, was effected near the Faro; but not being properly supported, 900 of them were taken prisoners by two British regiments, commanded by Major-general Campbell, and the rest were driven for shelter into their gun-boats. This repulse was followed, on the 3d of October, by a singular proclamation from Joachim, which declared the expedition to Sicily to be adjourned; the object of the emperor having been answered in the proof he had obtained that the enemy's flotillas could not obstruct the passage; and

that Sicily might be conquered whenever it should be seriously attempted.

In the Russian cabinet French influence also predominated, and Alexander, for whose quarrel England engaged in war with Turkey, made war himself against that power for consenting to a peace with England. In 1809 the Russian troops invaded Bulgaria, and obtained several advantages; and in 1810 an obstinate contest was carried on between them: but though several sanguinary battles were fought, none were decisive. There was an unusual demonstration of vigour on the part of the Ottomans; for though closely pressed by the Russians, and the war in Servia was greatly to the advantage of the insurgents there, they nevertheless sent troops into Syria against the powerful sect of the Wechabites, or Waughabites, the avowed enemies of Islamism. These Wechabites also betook themselves to piracy, which occasioned an armament to be sent against them, in April, into the Persian Gulf, by the British government at Bombay.

The differences between the governments of Great Britain and the United States still remained unadjusted; and the American minister in London demanded the recal of Mr. Jackson, which was accordingly ordered, but without any mark of censure on his conduct. In August, Buonaparte, availing himself of an act passed by congress for the conditional repeal of the non-intercourse act, declared, that the Berlin and Milan decrees should cease to operate on the 1st of November; and the American president issued a proclamation on the 2d of November, discontinuing all restrictions in relation to France and her dependencies, ordering, at the same time, that if Great Britain did not revoke her edicts by the 2d of February, the interdict should be enforced against her.

Such was the unpromising state of the differences between Great Britain and America at the close of the year 1810, when a commencement was made of those civil dissensions in Spanish America, which afterwards produced so much disorder and bloodshed. The manner in which these colonies were governed by the mother country had long been a subject of much discontent; but such was their attachment to the general cause of Spain, that the French usurpations excited an ardent zeal in its defence, and the colonists readily submitted to the provisional governments of Old Spain, and sent liberal contributions for their support. The bad success, however, of the measures adopted by the central Junta and the regency, led them to consider of the means whereby they might secure themselves from a French yoke; at the same time that they might, by their own efforts, redress the grievances under which they laboured. This spirit first manifested itself in the province of Caraccas, where the magistrates were deposed, and a provisional Junta was formed for carrying on the government, upon the principle of fraternization and unity with the mother country. Similar revolutions took place almost simultaneously in other provinces; and on the 19th of April, Caraccas, Cumana, Barina, Margarita, Barcelona, Merida, and Truxillo, formed an union, under the name of the American Confederacy of Venezuela. The principal leaders in this revolution, while they looked forward to ultimate independence, concealed their intentions at first under a profession of warm attachment to Old Spain, and swore allegiance to Ferdinand the Seventh, whom they doubtless believed to be for ever lost to them: but they did not recognise the authority of the regency at Cadiz, which they affirmed the central Junta had

no right to appoint without first assembling the Cortes. It soon appeared that the interests of the colonists, and those of the merchants at Cadiz, were totally at variance; and by the influence of the latter, the revolutionists were declared traitors, and their ports placed under blockade till they should acknowledge the regency as the legitimate representatives of Ferdinand the Seventh; at the same time the promise of an amnesty was held out for what had passed, on condition of future obedience. Two parties now appeared to divide Spanish America; the loyalists, who submitted to the regency, and the independents, who insisted upon governing themselves. King Joseph also endeavoured to form a third; but he met with very indifferent success, so general was the aversion to the French usurpation, though the dissensions of the other two parties had fermented into the flames of civil war. The Junta of Caraccas, desirous of knowing what might be expected from Great Britain in this novel conjuncture, entered into a correspondence with the British Governor of Curaçoa, who did not hesitate to admit it, though he felt it incumbent upon him to send to his government for instructions. In reply to his application to the ministry, the Earl of Liverpool, on the 29th of June, wrote a letter, the substance of which was, that under the obligations of justice and good faith, his Majesty must discourage every attempt to separate the Spanish provinces in America from the mother country: yet, if Spain should be condemned to submit to the yoke of the common enemy, his Majesty would think it his duty to afford every kind of assistance to those provinces in rendering them independent of *French Spain*, and to open in them an asylum to such Spaniards as should disdain to submit to their oppressors, where they might pre-

serve the remains of the monarchy for their lawful sovereign, should he ever recover his liberty. A copy of this letter, which, under circumstances so new, delicate, and difficult, was dictated by a spirit of the utmost prudence, being communicated to the regency at Cadiz, was published in all the Spanish newspapers, as a public declaration of the system on which the British government intended to act with respect to the South American colonies.

A strong suspicion was entertained by the *Independents* that there might be a secret negotiation for enforcing the pretensions of the Princess of Brazil to the whole country between the Porana and La Plata, in exchange for the islands of Madeira and St. Catherine: this apprehension arose from the appearance, in the month of March, of a Portuguese army, 10,000 strong, on the frontiers of the Spanish colonies; but it was quieted by a letter from Lord Strangford, the British minister at the court of Brazil, to the Buenos Ayres Junta, in which any such intention was disavowed.

The extraordinary rigour with which the French government proceeded in excluding British commerce from the continent, produced the effect of considerably reducing the demand for our manufactures, and those of cotton being peculiarly affected, numerous failures in that branch were the consequence. A great depreciation in the value of the last loan to government also took place.

A domestic calamity, which forms a memorable era in the annals of the present reign, must now be recorded. His Majesty, in consequence, as was supposed, of deep affliction from the sufferings of his youngest daughter, the Princess Amelia, which terminated in her death on the 2d of November, was

again attacked by the mental malady under which he had before laboured, at a time too when his advanced age left no just grounds to hope for his recovery. The Parliament stood prorogued to the 1st of November, on which day both Houses met, expecting to be farther adjourned, according to the usual practice; but as the King was not in a state to sign the commission, the two Houses, having no precedent to guide them, were left to shape a course of proceeding for themselves. As the reports of the physicians afforded hopes of his Majesty's speedy recovery, successive adjournments took place until it became necessary to appoint a regency; and on the 20th of December, three resolutions, framed on the precedents of 1788-9, were proposed by Mr. Perceval, as preparatory to the introduction of a bill for supplying the defect in the personal exercise of the royal authority. By this bill the Prince of Wales was appointed regent, and empowered to exercise the royal authority in the name of his Majesty. He was, for a specified time, restrained from granting peerages, or summoning heirs-apparent, or appointing to titles in abeyance; likewise from granting offices in reversion, or for a longer time than during pleasure, excepting those allowed by law to be granted for life, or during good behaviour, as well as pensions to the chancellor, judges, &c. These restrictions were to terminate on the 1st of February, 1812, provided Parliament should have been sitting six weeks, and should be then assembled. The care of his Majesty's person and the direction of his household were vested in the Queen, who was to be assisted by a council, the members of which were, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Duke of Montrose, the Earl of Winchelsea, the Earl of Aylesford, Lord Eldon, Lord Ellenborough, and Sir William

Grant. If his Majesty should be restored to health, the Queen and her council were to notify that event by an instrument transmitted to the privy council, who were to assemble and make entry of it; after which the King by his sign manual might require them to assemble, and at his pleasure direct proclamation to issue, when the powers of the act were to cease.

On the leading proposition, that the prince, as régent, should be laid under restrictions, the Hon. Mr. Lambe moved an amendment, that the entire royal power should be conferred upon the Prince of Wales, without any restriction. A debate ensued, in the course of which arguments of a similar tendency with those used under the same circumstances during Mr. Pitt's administration were adduced, and with the same result, the amendment being negatived by 224 against 200; the smallness of which majority denoted a general opinion that ministers held their places by a very doubtful tenure. Indeed the opposition had every reason to contemplate the establishment of the regency as the conclusion of the existing administration, the members of which had never possessed the prince's confidence; they therefore wished to put into his hands as much power as possible, and they resisted every restriction that was in the least likely to operate as a limitation of the influence and authority to which they expected to succeed. On the other hand, the ministry, borne up by the hope of the King's speedy recovery, were chiefly intent upon the means for facilitating his resumption of the regal office, and in the meantime of retaining a portion of the influence attached to the possession of court favour.

After much discussion, the regency bill, by resorting to the fiction of signifying the King's assent to an act founded on that very incapacity which disabled him

from performing any legislative function, finally passed into a law on the 5th of February, 1811; and as it was well known that the political attachments and principles of the Prince-regent lay all on the side of Earl Grey and Lord Grenville, it was expected that the existing administration would be dissolved, and their opponents taken into power; but the installation of the Prince, as regent, took place on the 6th of February; and no arrangements for a new ministry had been made. The malady of the King, after undergoing frequent and great variations, assumed a much more mild and favourable form, and the physicians again pronounced his Majesty's recovery as not far distant. This circumstance, combined with others, determined the Prince to retain the present ministers, which he communicated to Mr. Perceval, in a note, dated the 4th of February: at the same time stating, that the irresistible impulse of filial duty and affection made him unwilling to do a single act which might retard his father's recovery; and that this consideration alone had dictated his decision. He added, that it would not be one of the least blessings which would result from the restoration of his Majesty, that it would rescue the regency from a situation of unexampled embarrassment, and put an end to a state of affairs, ill calculated he feared, to sustain the interests of the kingdom in this awful and perilous crisis, and most difficult to be reconciled to the genuine principles of the British constitution.

On the 12th of February the session was opened with the usual formalities; and a speech was delivered by commission, in the name of the Regent, which, after expressing the most unfeigned sorrow on account of the calamity that had imposed upon him the duty of exercising the royal authority, congratulated Par-

liament on the success of his Majesty's arms, both by sea and land, and trusted that he would be enabled to continue to afford the most effectual assistance to the brave nations of the Peninsula. With regard to the United States of America, it was his earnest wish to bring the discussions with that country to an amicable termination, consistent with the honour of the crown, and the maintenance of the maritime rights and interests of this kingdom; and he trusted to the zeal of Parliament for adequate supplies in order to bring the great contest in which the country was engaged to a happy issue. The usual address was carried in both Houses.

A proof of the manner in which the Prince-regent regarded his temporary authority, was afforded by a communication made to the House of Commons on the 21st of February, when the chancellor of the exchequer stated that his royal highness, on being informed that a motion was intended to be made for a provision for the royal household, declared that he would not add to the burthens of the people, by accepting of any addition to his public state as Regent. Mr. Adam stated that the prince had put into his hand a letter from Mr. Perceval, relating to the intended provision, accompanying it with written instructions, that, should any proposition for an establishment be made, he should inform the House that his royal highness wished to discharge the duties of the temporary regency without an increase. In case, however, of such circumstances occurring as might lead to a permanent regency, he conceived that the question would then be opened anew to the consideration of his royal highness.

The commercial distresses of the nation were now so seriously felt, that the attention of government was necessarily fixed upon them; and on the 1st of March

a committee of 21 members was appointed to investigate the present state of the commercial credit of the country, and to make their report thereon. On the 11th the report was taken into consideration, and a bill was introduced by the chancellor of the exchequer, and passed, whereby the sum of 6,000,000*l.* was to be advanced to certain commissioners, for the assistance of such merchants as should apply for the same, on giving sufficient security for the re-payment of the money so advanced. It might naturally have been supposed that, in the midst of so much embarrassment and distress, the money voted by Parliament at the recommendation of the committee would have been eagerly sought after, and soon exhausted. Such was the case in 1793; the reverse, however, happened now, and the sums applied for were to a less amount than the provision made. Yet the commercial distresses continued to increase during the year, and displayed themselves by frightful lists of bankrupts in every gazette, amounting to an aggregate of which no former year in the annals of the country afforded a parallel.

The report of the bullion committee was brought under consideration on the 6th of May, when Mr. Horner moved a series of resolutions, grounded upon the report of the committee, and contending that the standard value of gold, as a measure of exchange, could not possibly fluctuate under any change of circumstances, though its real price was unquestionably subject to all the variations arising from the increase or diminution of the supply; that bank paper, measured by this standard, was depreciated; and that the consequence was, to render our exchanges with the continent unfavourable, to advance prices, to occasion immense losses to creditors, and materially to injure

all monied incomes. Mr. Vansittart, who took the lead on the part of the practical statesmen; as they were designated, in opposition to the bullionists, moved a number of counter resolutions, in which it was declared, that bank notes were not depreciated; that the political and commercial relations of this country with foreign states were sufficient to account for the unfavourable state of the foreign exchange, and the high price of bullion; that it was highly important that the restrictions on cash payments at the bank should be removed whenever it was compatible with the public interest; but that, to fix a definite period earlier than that of six months after the conclusion of peace, which was already fixed, would be highly inexpedient and dangerous. These discussions occupied the House of Commons no less than seven nights, when the resolutions moved by Mr. Horner were rejected, and those presented by Mr. Vansittart adopted by a large majority. Before the session closed, however, a practical illustration was adduced by Lord King, that the question was not set at rest by this decision. His lordship, in a notice sent to his tenants, reminded them that they had agreed to pay their rents in good and lawful money of Great Britain, and informed them that he could no longer accept of bank notes at their nominal value. He therefore called upon them to pay their rents, either in guineas, or in equivalent weight in Portuguese gold coin, or in bank notes sufficient to purchase, at the existing market price, the weight of as much standard gold as would discharge the rents. Lord Stanhope thought this proceeding so mischievous, that he introduced a bill into the House of Lords on the 27th of June, for preventing the current gold coin of the realm from being paid for more than its mint value, and for preventing bank

notes from being received for any smaller sum than that for which they were issued. The fate of this bill was very extraordinary : on its first reading, ministers opposed it, on the ground that such a measure was unnecessary ; but on the second reading they had discovered their error, and the prorogation of Parliament was actually delayed for the purpose of passing it into a law.

The practice of flogging in the army had frequently been a subject of animadversion, both in and out of Parliament ; but though government had hitherto strenuously opposed the motions which had been made to abolish it, Mr. Manners Sutton, the judge advocate, when the mutiny bill came before the House of Commons on the 14th of March, introduced a clause by which a discretionary power was given to courts-martial of sentencing to imprisonment, instead of corporal punishment. A bill was also passed for effecting an interchange of militias between Great Britain and Ireland. The attention of Parliament was likewise called, by Mr. Brougham, to the enormities which still continued to be practiced by captains of vessels and others, who, notwithstanding the legislative enactments to the contrary, persisted in carrying on the African slave trade. His proposition, which passed into a law, was to render any British subject who might engage in this traffic liable to transportation, for any period not exceeding fourteen years.

Among the Catholics of Ireland an opinion had universally prevailed that the Prince was favourable to their claims ; and on his investment with power, their activity and zeal in promoting their object greatly increased. Among other measures, they had proposed to establish a committee in Dublin, composed of delegates from each county, for the manage-

ment of their affairs, which being deemed unlawful, Mr. Wellesley Pole, secretary to the lord-lieutenant, addressed a circular to the sheriffs and chief magistrates of the counties, requiring them to arrest all persons concerned in the election of such delegates; and this letter, being brought before Parliament, excited considerable discussion. On the 3d of March, Mr. Pole, having returned from Ireland, stated, in explanation, that the Catholic committee of 1809 had confined their deliberations to the business of petitioning; whereas the delegates of 1810 were empowered to manage the Catholic affairs generally; and that a committee of grievances, which met weekly, imitated all the forms of the House of Commons. The lord-lieutenant had taken the opinion of the great law officers, and the attorney-general had drawn up the circular letter which was issued. The Catholic petitions were presented this session by Mr. Grattan and Lord Donoughmore, and rejected. Not discouraged by this defeat, the Irish Catholics held a meeting on the 9th of July, at Dublin, for the appointment of delegates to the general committee of Catholics, when five persons were apprehended for a breach of the convention act, one of whom, Dr. Sheridan, was tried and acquitted. A new committee of delegates met on the 19th of October, at a theatre, and having placed Lord Fingal in the chair, dispatched their business before the magistrates arrived to disperse them. On the 26th, the aggregate meeting was held, when it was resolved to present an humble address to the Prince-regent as soon as the restrictions on his authority should cease.

The sensation excited by a bill, introduced by Lord Sidmouth, for altering the toleration act, can scarcely be described. In 48 hours, 336 petitions against it were poured into the House of Lords; and when the

bill came to be read a second time, on the 21st of May, it was encountered by 500 more. Such an expression of the public feeling was not to be resisted: ministers themselves, and even the dignitaries of the church, now opposed the further progress of the measure; and under these circumstances it was rejected without a division. On introducing the bill, Lord Sidmouth stated, that, till within the last 30 or 40 years, the toleration act had been construed in such a manner as to exclude all persons unqualified, from want of the requisite talents and learning, and unfit, from the meanness of their situation, or the profligacy of their character, from exercising the functions of ministers of religion: but since that period, all who offered themselves at the quarter-sessions, provided they took the oaths, and made the declaration required by law, obtained the requisite certificates, not only as a matter of course, but as a matter of right. In order to remedy this evil, he proposed, that, to entitle any man to obtain a license as a preacher, he should have the recommendation of at least six respectable householders of the congregation to which he belonged; and that such congregation should be actually willing to listen to his instructions. Those who were itinerant were to bring a testimonial, stating them to be of sober life and character, together with the belief that they were qualified to perform the functions of preachers. The effects expected from this bill were, that improper and unaccredited men would have been prevented from assuming the most important of all duties—that of instructing their fellow-creatures in the principles of religion and virtue. As it might, however, have been occasionally perverted to purposes of intolerance, it is better, perhaps, that it was lost.

—On the 20th of May, Mr. Perceval opened the

budget for the year. The supply voted for the public service amounted to about 56,000,000*l.* including a sum of 2,000,000*l.* granted to the government of Portugal, and 100,000*l.* as an eleemosynary aid to the distressed Portuguese. The loan for the present year, Mr. Perceval stated at 12,000,000*l.* the interest on which he proposed to discharge by an additional duty on British and foreign spirits. He further stated it to be his intention to impose an additional duty on timber, pearl and potashes, and foreign linens, which, with a tax of one penny per pound on cotton-wool imported from the United States of America, he estimated at 866,600*l.* Owing, however, to the opposition made to the principle of taxing a raw material, the proposed duty on cotton-wool was abandoned; and a tax upon hats, which had long operated as a burdensome and vexatious impost on the fair trader, while it sunk into insignificance as a subject of revenue, shared the same fate.

One of the earliest acts of the Prince-regent, after his assumption of the royal functions, was the restoration of his brother, the Duke of York, to the post of commander-in-chief of the army; a measure which induced Lord Milton to propose a vote of censure on the advisers of it. The chancellor of the exchequer acknowledged the responsibility of his Majesty's servants in recommending the measure in question. Sir David Dundas, who had lately filled the office, was obliged, by illness, to retire from its arduous duties, and there was not the slightest hesitation in the minds of ministers, whom they should recommend to supply the vacancy thus created: the eminent services rendered to the army by the Duke of York, which were universally acknowledged, left them no choice; and as to the proceedings on a former occasion, alluded to by

the noble lord, they pledged the House to nothing. On this occasion, several gentlemen who had, during the proceedings in the year 1809, taken part against the Duke of York, did not hesitate to avow, either that they had been formerly carried away by the current of public opinion; or that they considered the case, as it now presented itself, in a different point of view. The votes for Lord Milton's motion were 47; against it, 296; constituting a majority of 249 in favour of the re-appointment. The nation at large seemed to have been affected with a similar change of opinion, and the duke resumed his post with all the facility of a public functionary who had quitted his office without imputation.

His Majesty's health, in the early part of the year, underwent several variations; but in the report of the Queen's council, made on the 6th of July, a few days before the prorogation of Parliament, which took place on the 24th, it was stated that his health was not such as to enable him to resume the personal exercise of the royal functions.

The orders in council not being repealed on the 2d of February, Mr. Pinkney, the American minister in London, was recalled, and had his audience of leave of the Prince-regent on the 1st of March; from which time, the American ports were open to the ships of France, and closed against those of England. An encounter which took place between a British sloop of war, the *Little Belt*, commanded by Captain Bingham, and the American frigate, called the *President*, under Commodore Rodgers, had nearly proved the signal of open war between the two nations; but their respective governments disavowed the issue of any hostile orders to the commanders, and were disposed to take no farther notice of the affair. In the spring, Mr.

Foster was sent to the United States as envoy extraordinary and plenipotentiary from Great Britain, and entered into a correspondence with Mr. Monroe on the subjects in dispute, but found it impossible to effect an adjustment without exceeding his instructions, by holding forth an expectation that the orders of council would be repealed. On the meeting of congress in November, the president recommended vigorous measures of preparation, both by sea and land, in consequence of the hostile inflexibility of the British cabinet; the finances of the American government, however, seemed but little suited to meet the expense of a war; and the friends of peace, though outvoted in the legislative assemblies, put some confidence in the prospect of loans and taxes to cool the martial ardour of a people, unaccustomed, like those of Europe, to acquiesce in such burthens.

The Dutch settlements in the island of Java, from which the mother country had, in the days of her prosperity, derived great wealth and consequence, were now destined to augment the preponderating power of Britain in the East, a formidable expedition being fitted out against them by Lord Minto, Governor-general of India, who entrusted the command of the troops to Sir Samuel Auchmuty, and accompanied them in person. On the 5th of August, a landing was effected without opposition, the principal force of the Dutch, under General Jansens, being stationed at Cornelis, some distance up the country; on which account, Sir Samuel determined to proceed against Batavia; and on the 8th, that city surrendered without resistance. The garrison retreated to Weltvreede, and thence to a fortified position two miles from their works at Cornelis, which was carried by a detachment under Colonel Gillespie at the point of the bayonet.

For some days a cannonade was directed against the works, by which several batteries were silenced ; and on the 26th a general assault was ordered, which was carried into execution at every point with the most determined bravery : the lines were forced ; the fort was stormed ; and the whole of the hostile army was killed, taken, or dispersed. Jansens fled with a few cavalry, and arriving at Samarang, employed himself in collecting all the force that remained for defence ; but he was soon compelled to capitulate, and the whole island of Java surrendered to the British arms.

The navy of England, having left itself no adequate antagonist, was now obliged to be satisfied with such minor exploits as occasionally presented themselves ; in all of which, the skill and superiority of British sailors were conspicuous. In the Italian seas a brilliant achievement was performed by four frigates, under Captain Hoste, against a French force of five frigates and several smaller vessels, with 500 troops on board, destined to garrison the island of Lissa. Confiding in their superiority, the French bore down in two divisions to attack the English, and displayed more than their accustomed skill, following up that skill with a considerable share of activity and bravery. The unconquerable spirit of British seamen, however, was most brilliantly displayed on this occasion ; and the result was, that the ship of the French commander, who bravely fell in the action, was destroyed, and two were captured. A fourth escaped after striking her colours. In the Indian sea three French frigates, with a reinforcement of troops for the Mauritius, having appeared off that island after its capture, they were pursued by three frigates and a sloop, when one was taken ; another escaped after having struck ; and the third, having proceeded to Tamatava, which had

been repossessed by the French, was there captured, the fort and the vessels in the harbour being also obliged to surrender. In every direction the enemy's coast was kept in continual alarm, and in none could his vessels, armed or unarmed, move in safety.

An event of great apparent moment to the security of Napoleon's throne was his empress's delivery of a son, on the 20th of April. The ancient title of King of Rome, which had for many years lain dormant, was immediately revived for the young prince, and he was welcomed with all the extravagant adulation usually bestowed on the heirs of absolute monarchy or extensive dominion. Nothing, however, could for a moment divert the attention of the ruler of France from his favourite object—the exclusion of English commerce from the Continent; and while the French people were substituting horse-beans for coffee, and extracting sugar from beet-root and palm sea-weed, they were called upon to applaud the wisdom and goodness which dictated the exclusion of colonial produce, and the burning of British merchandise. The conscription law was applied to the levying of seamen in the 30 maritime departments, and the quotas liable to serve in the year 1813, and the three following years, were placed at the disposal of the minister of marine. At Antwerp 20 ships of the line were ordered to be built, and the basin was rendered capable of containing 50 sail. Spanish prisoners were employed in the dock-yards and fortifications; and men of all countries were collected to man the fleet. About this time it began to be apparent that no great cordiality subsisted between Buonaparte and the Emperor Alexander; and, in an address to a council of commerce, he complained that Russia had not caused his decrees to be respected; adding, “I am, and always will be, master of the Baltic.”

CHAPTER XXXIII.

The peninsular war was carried on with considerable vigour, and attended with various success. On the 2d of January Suchet made himself master of Tortosa; and on the 22d of the same month Olivença was taken possession of by Soult. On the latter day died the gallant and truly patriotic Marquis de la Romana, in a fit of apoplexy, at Badajoz, at the moment when he was quitting his horse to concert a plan of military operations with Lord Wellington. Within a month afterwards, Romana's corps, the command of which had devolved on General Mendizabel, was totally defeated by Soult.

On the 25th of February an expedition sailed from Cadiz, under the command of Lieutenant-general Graham and Don Manuel La Pena, the object of which was to attack the French who were employed in the siege of that city. On the morning of the 5th of March, this force, comprising a body of English, Spaniards, and Portuguese, arrived on the low ridge of Barrosa, about four miles from the mouth of the river Santi Petri. A spirited and successful attack on the rear of the enemy's lines opened the communication with the Isle of Leon; after which General Graham moved down from the position of Barrosa to the Torre de Bermesa, about half way to the Santi Petri, to secure the communication across that river, over which a bridge had been recently thrown; but the general, when he had advanced into the middle of the wood through which his route lay, received notice that the enemy was advancing towards the heights of Barrosa, and, considering that position as the key to Santi Petri, he immediately made a counter-march, to support the

troops left for its defence: before this corps, however, could wholly disentangle itself from the woods, the troops on the ridge of Barrosa were seen retiring, whilst the left wing of the enemy was rapidly ascending. To retreat in the face of an enemy superior in numbers, and so advantageously posted, would have exposed the allies to great danger: relying, therefore, on the courage of his troops, an immediate attack was determined on by the English commander, which was executed with the utmost bravery, and in an hour and a half the French were in full retreat; but, after so unequal a contest, the allies found pursuit impracticable. The enemy lost about 3000 in killed, wounded, and prisoners, with 6 pieces of cannon. The English loss in killed and wounded amounted to 1243, amongst whom were several officers high in estimation. Admiral Sir Richard Keats ably seconded the operations of the army, and a small body of seamen and marines stormed and dismantled the works of the enemy at the mouth of the Guadaleté. General Graham, finding it impossible to procure supplies, withdrew the next day across the Santi Petri, and afterwards returned to the Isle of Leon. La Pena, who was blamed for not having more effectually co-operated with the British, returned with his forces to Cadiz; and the French resumed the blockade.

About this period General Massena began his retreat from Santarem, where he had never found an opportunity to engage Lord Wellington with any favourable prospect. The vanguard of his lordship, however, attacked his rear near Pombal, and drove it from its position, on the 11th of March; but this trifling advantage was much more than counterpoised by the loss of Badajoz, which, after a vigorous resistance, surrendered to Marshal Soult on the same day. Massena

continuing his retreat through Portugal, was closely pursued by Lord Wellington. General Beresford, on the 25th of March, attacked the advanced guard of Marshal Mortier, and pursued it to the gates of Badajoz; and on the 15th of April he forced Olivença to capitulate. On the 10th of the same month the Catalonians took Figueras by surprise, having maintained intelligence with the Italian troops in that place. Lord Wellington attacked the rear of Massena's army on the 3d of April; and, after a spirited contest, the French position was carried by the bayonet. His lordship was in turn attacked by Massena, in his position of Fuente de Honore, on the 3d of May, and the French gained some advantage at the commencement of the action; but they were at length obliged to recross the Agueda, without accomplishing their object of throwing a body of troops into Almeida. The garrison of that fortress, however, succeeded in evacuating the place, and blowing up the works, in view of the British, on the 10th of May. Massena, rapidly pursued by the English, conducted his retreat in the most able manner; but his route was tracked by the most horrible desolation; and he and his followers were accused, by the British commander, of acts of cruelty and wanton mischief which would have disgraced a horde of barbarians.

By the 8th of May General Beresford had invested Badajoz, and repelled, though with some loss, the sorties of the garrison: scarcely, however, had he commenced the siege, when intelligence arrived that Marshal Soult had left Seville, with 15,000 men, and was marching to its relief. This information was repeated on the night of the 12th of May; in consequence of which the English commander immediately suspended his operations, removed the battering can-

non and stores to Elvas, and, having been joined on the 14th by the Spanish Generals Castanos and Blake, he prepared to meet the enemy. Soult, in the afternoon of the 15th, appeared in front of the allies with a force of about 20,000 men, having been joined in his march by a corps of 5000, under Latour Maubourg. The allied army completed its dispositions for receiving the enemy on the morning of the 16th: it was then formed in two lines, on a rising ground, running nearly parallel to the little river Albuera. Several of the Spanish corps, although they made forced marches, were unable to join the army till the middle of the preceding night. The French began the attack, in which they attempted the twofold object of pushing across the river, to turn the right flank of the allies, and of carrying the village and bridge of Albuera; and they succeeded so far as to drive from their ground the Spanish troops, who were posted on the heights to the right of the line, and to occupy their place. In this situation they were enabled to keep up a raking fire upon the whole position of the allies, so that it became necessary to recover it; and the most vigorous efforts were made, with that view, at the point of the bayonet. A dreadful carnage ensued, by which some regiments were nearly annihilated; occasioned, principally, by a body of Polish lancers, who broke in, unperceived, upon the rear of the right division, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Colbourn. One regiment alone escaped the fury of this attack, and kept its ground till the arrival of the third brigade, under Major-general Houghton, who fell, pierced with wounds, as he was cheering his men to advance. At length, however, the enemy was driven back, with great slaughter, across the river. The main attack being thus frustrated, that of the

which event 374 pieces of cannon, and immense magazines, also fell into the hands of the enemy. The commencement of this year was distinguished by the raising of the siege of Tariffa, which had been bravely defended, by a small garrison of English and Spaniards, from the 20th of December to the 4th of January, against a force of 11,000 men, under Marshal Victor. On the 19th of January, Lord Wellington, who was now in a condition to resume offensive operations, carried Ciudad Rodrigo by assault, after a fortnight's siege. Major-general M'Kinnon fell, mortally wounded, in the breach; and the loss of men was considerable. On this occasion a vote of the Cortes conferred on Lord Wellington the rank of a grandee of Spain of the first class, with the title of Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo. In the eastern parts of the kingdom the patriotic generals carried on the war against the common enemy with considerable spirit. The French commander, Montbrun, was compelled to retire from before Alicant, after an ineffectual cannonade of the fortress. The French attacked General Lacy, who was posted on the heights of Altafalla, near Tarragona, on the 24th of January, when the patriots eminently distinguished themselves; but, overwhelmed by the numbers and discipline of the enemy, they were ultimately obliged to retreat to the mountains. By the treachery of its governor, the town of Peniscola, a place of great strength, seated on a bold promontory overlooking the Mediterranean, was soon afterwards surrendered to the French.

General Ballasteros attacked and defeated, near Malaga, a French corps, commanded by General Marausin, on the 16th of February. On the 16th of the following month Lord Wellington again invested Badajoz; on the 31st he opened his fire; and, on the

6th of April, three practicable breaches were made, when an assault in the night was determined upon. Simultaneous attacks on different parts of the works were planned, of which that on the castle, by escalade, conducted by Lieutenant-general Picton, was the first that succeeded; and his third division was established in it by about half past eleven. In the mean time the breaches in the bastions were vigorously assailed by some of the other divisions; but such were the obstacles raised by the enemy, that the assailants, after a long contest and considerable loss, were obliged to retire. The possession of the castle, however, which commanded all the works, decided the fate of the town; and at day-light, on the morning of the 7th, General Philippon, the commandant, surrendered, with the whole garrison, which, at the beginning of the siege, had consisted of 5000 men; but about 1200 had been killed or wounded during its progress, besides those who perished in the assault. This triumph, which compelled the French, who had advanced into Portugal as far as Castello Branco, to commence a precipitate retreat, was purchased by the severe loss of 4825 English and Portuguese killed, wounded, and missing.

All the frontier towns having thus fallen into his hands, Lord Wellington determined no longer to delay the expedition into Spain which he had long meditated. As a preliminary, he directed Sir Rowland Hill, who still commanded in the south, to endeavour to destroy the bridge of Almaraz, which formed the only communication, lower than Toledo, by which a great army could cross the Tagus; and, after a difficult march of seven days, the enterprise was effected in the most brilliant style. Such, indeed, was that general's success on services of this nature,

that he kept the enemy in continual alarm. On the 13th of June the allied army broke up from their cantonments on the Agueda, and on the 16th entered Salamanca. The French had erected in this place three forts, which Lord Wellington hoped speedily to reduce: his first attack, however, was unsuccessful; and it was found necessary to wait, for some days, the arrival of a battering train. The enemy hovered round, endeavouring to communicate with the garrison, and to throw in supplies; but all their attempts were frustrated by the activity of Sir Thomas Graham. On the 27th the principal fort was stormed, when the rest immediately surrendered, and the French army took a position behind the Douro, breaking down the bridges over that river, the passage of which Lord Wellington was not provided with the means of forcing. Here Marmont was joined by Bonnet, which, with other reinforcements, rendered his force equal, or superior, to that of the English commander, and he consequently determined to act on the offensive. After a great variety of skilful manœuvres on both sides, Marmont, inspired with the extravagant hope of destroying, at one blow, the whole English army, extended his line, in order to enclose the allies within the position which they had taken up: an error which was instantly perceived and improved by his opponent. Nearly the whole army being brought opposite to the enemy's left, an attack was commenced upon that wing. Three divisions, under Generals Leith, Cole, and Cotton, charged in front, while General Pakenham formed another across the enemy's flank. This single movement decided the victory. The left wing made no resistance; the British troops overthrew every thing opposed to them. In the centre the contest was more obstinate. The

fourth division was forced to retreat, and General Beresford was wounded, and obliged to leave the field; these troops, however, being reinforced by those which had routed the French left wing, victory declared alike in their favour. The right wing soon shared the fate of the two others; and, as the evening closed, the whole force of the enemy was in total rout. Although the darkness of the night favoured their retreat, 7000 prisoners, 11 pieces of cannon, 6 stands of colours, and 2 eagles, fell into the hands of the allies. Marmont lost an arm; Bonnet was severely wounded; and the care of saving the wrecks of the army devolved on General Clausel. In killed, wounded, and missing, the loss of the allies amounted to 5220, and that of the enemy must have been still greater. The Portuguese displayed great bravery, and sustained a heavy loss, their killed and wounded amounting to 1856.

Joseph Buonaparte marched from Madrid, on the 21st of July, with about 14,000 troops, to join Marmont; but, receiving intelligence of his defeat at Salamanca, he marched towards Segovia. The allies pushed forward, and, as the first consequence of their important victory, obtained possession of Madrid on the 12th of August. Lord Wellington next advanced towards Burgos, and succeeded in making himself master of some of the outworks; but all his attempts against the castle failed, and he at length raised the siege, after sustaining considerable loss, and commenced a retrograde march towards the Douro, the French army having been reinforced by all the disposable troops in the north of Spain, and advices having also been received that Soult, Suchet, and Joseph Buonaparte, with 70,000 men, were fast approaching the passes against Sir Rowland Hill, who

had no adequate force to oppose them. Having recalled his troops from Madrid, and directed General Hill to proceed northward to join him, Lord Wellington moved upon Salamanca, where he hoped to establish himself: but Soult, having united his forces with those of Souham, which had advanced from Burgos, obliged him to continue his retreat. On the 24th of November he fixed his head-quarters at Freynada, on the Portuguese frontier, after a masterly retreat before an army of 90,000 men, against which he could only oppose 52,000. Though unable to maintain himself in the centre of the Peninsula, Lord Wellington's advance had the effect of obliging the invaders to break up the lines of Cadiz, and evacuate Seville, Grenada, Cordova, and all the south of Spain.

The patriotic corps had numerous skirmishes with the French, in which they were frequently successful; and the guerillas also carried on their desultory operations with wonderful enterprise and effect. By a decree of the Regency and the Cortes, Lord Wellington was constituted generalissimo of the Spanish armies. His lordship had previously been created Earl, and afterwards Marquis, of Wellington—titles which he had nobly acquired by his conduct of the peninsular war.

By a reunion of all the prerogatives of the crown in the person of the Prince-regent, the year 1812 may be considered as the commencement of a new reign. Parliament met on the 7th of January; and the royal speech, delivered by the lord-chancellor, after lamenting the disappointment of the hopes so confidently entertained of his Majesty's speedy recovery, congratulated Parliament on the skill and valour displayed by the British army in the peninsula of Spain and

Portugal, as well as upon the extinction of the colonial power of the enemy in the east; and concluded with an assurance, on the part of the Regent, that he would continue to employ all such means of conciliation, for adjusting the existing differences between Great Britain and America, as might be consistent with the honour and dignity of his Majesty's crown.

The King's symptoms had gradually become more discouraging, until, in the beginning of the present year, there remained little hope of his restoration; and, at an early period of the session, Mr. Perceval submitted a plan for the arrangement of the royal household, which seemed neither to imply confident hope nor absolute despair of his recovery. As separate establishments for the Regent and the King were now necessary, he proposed that an addition of 70,000*l.* *per annum* should be made to the civil list out of the consolidated fund; that the King's establishment, the annual expense of which was estimated at 100,000*l.*, should be placed under the controul of the Queen, who would have the care of his person; that 10,000*l.* *per annum* be added to her Majesty's income; and that a commission of three persons should be appointed for the management of the King's private property. The various propositions of Mr. Perceval were agreed to, as was a bill, by which the sum of 100,000*l.* was voted to the Prince-regent to meet the expenses consequent on his assumption of the royal authority. A grant of 9000*l.* *per annum* was likewise voted to each of the princesses, in addition to 4000*l.* payable from the civil list.

On the 13th of February, when the Regency restrictions were on the eve of their termination, the Prince addressed a letter to the Duke of York, expressing his approbation of the conduct of ministers,

but intimating a wish that some of those persons with whom the early habits of his public life were formed would strengthen his hands, and constitute a part of his government. Two days after the date of this letter, Lords Grey and Grenville, to whom the Duke of York had, in compliance with the request of the Prince-regent, communicated his sentiments, addressed a reply to his royal highness, in which they expressed, on public grounds alone, the impossibility of their uniting with the existing government, their differences of opinion embracing almost all the leading features of the actual policy of the empire. On one subject their sentiments were especially at variance: they were so firmly persuaded of the necessity of a total change in the system of governing Ireland, and of the immediate repeal of those civil disabilities under which so large a portion of the people laboured, on account of their religious opinions, that to recommend to Parliament that repeal would be the first advice which they would feel it their duty to offer to his royal highness. All hope of forming an extended administration was therefore dispelled.

The ministry now consisted of two parties; at the head of one of which was Mr. Perceval, and of the other the Marquis Wellesley. The differences between these statesmen were partly personal, and partly political; the high and aspiring views of the marquis would not permit him to serve under Mr. Perceval, though he had no objection to serve with him, or to serve under either the Earl of Moira or Lord Holland; and when it appeared that the Regent intended to continue Mr. Perceval at the head of his councils, the marquis resigned his office, and the seals of the foreign department were transferred to Lord Castlereagh. On the 19th of March Lord Boringdon moved an address

to the Prince-regent, beseeching him to form such an administration as might most effectually call forth the entire confidence and energies of the united kingdom, and afford to his royal highness additional means of conducting, to a successful termination, a war, in which were involved the safety, honour, and prosperity of the country. In the debate that ensued, Earl Grey stated the points on which Lord Grenville and himself had declined an union with the existing administration, which, he said, was formed on the express principle of resistance to the Catholic claims; a principle loudly proclaimed by the person at its head, from the moment he quitted the bar to take a share in political life; and where he led, the rest were obliged to follow. With respect to the disputes with America, he wished to bear in mind the principle so well expressed by the late Edmund Burke, that, "as we ought never to go to war for a profitable wrong, so we ought never to go to war for an unprofitable right." On making bank-notes a legal tender, an impassable line of separation existed between him and the present ministry; and as to the war in the Peninsula, it was his wish that we should not proceed on the present expensive scale, without having some military authority as to its probable result. He complained of an unseen and separate influence behind the throne; the existence of which was denied by Lord Mulgrave, who avowed the hostility of ministers to the Catholic claims, which was assumed, by the Earl of Moira, as a sufficient reason why they ought to be removed. The motion was negatived.

The power of the administration appeared now to be more firmly established than ever, when it was deprived of its leader by a tragical and extraordinary event. On the 11th of May, as Mr. Perceval was

entering the lobby of the House of Commons, a man, whose name proved to be John Bellingham, fired a pistol at him, and shot him through the heart. He staggered, fell, and in a few minutes expired. The assassin, who made no attempt to escape, was examined at the bar of the House of Commons, where it was apprehended that this was only the first act of a deep and extensive conspiracy; but it soon appeared that the act was merely in revenge of a supposed private injury. Bellingham having, in a commercial visit to Russia, undergone losses, for which he thought the English government was bound to procure him redress, its refusal to take any cognizance of his case made such an impression on his mind, constitutionally disposed to dark melancholy, that he resolved to make a sacrifice of some conspicuous member of the government. On his trial, which took place four days after the commission of the deed, he displayed great self-possession, yet his sanity was involved in doubt: he discovered intellectual powers capable of discerning all the tendencies of human actions, but stimulated to the confines of madness by an acute sense of real or supposed wrongs, which he claimed the right of avenging. After a defence, remarkable for its acuteness, he was found guilty, and executed on the Monday following.

The day after the assassination of Mr. Perceval a message was sent down to Parliament by the Prince-regent, expressing the wish of his royal highness that a suitable provision should be made for his family. A grant of 2000*l.* a year was accordingly conferred on his widow, and the sum of 50,000*l.* voted to her twelve children. It was afterwards proposed, and agreed to, that the annuity of Mrs. Perceval should, at her demise, descend to her eldest son.

In private life few men were more deservedly respected than Mr. Perceval. On quitting Cambridge he pursued the study of the law as a profession, and on entering Parliament, in 1796, he attached himself to the politics of Mr. Pitt; but he was not distinguished as a public speaker till after the death of the Duke of Portland, when he became prime minister. His talents were not splendid; but, as chancellor of the exchequer, he displayed considerable skill in augmenting the public burthens at a time when the war was conducted on a scale of unprecedented expenditure. His advancement, however, can only be attributed to his inflexibility on the Catholic question at a time when a majority of Parliamentary talent, though a minority in number, was in favour of some concession.

Considerable difficulty was experienced in supplying the vacancy occasioned by the death of Mr. Perceval, and overtures were made, by Lord Liverpool, to the Marquis of Wellesley and Mr. Canning; but they declined to associate themselves with government, assigning, as their reason, the avowed sentiments of ministers on the Catholic question. On the 21st of May Mr. Stuart Wortley moved an address to the Prince-regent, praying that he would take such measures as might be best calculated to form an efficient government. The motion was carried; the address was presented; and the answer of his royal highness was, that he would take it into his serious and immediate consideration. The Marquis Wellesley, who was first applied to, proposed, as the chief conditions on which the new cabinet should be formed, the early consideration of the Catholic question, and the more vigorous prosecution of the war in Spain; and, on failing with Lords Liverpool and Melville, he communicated

with Lords Grey and Grenville, but they also declined his proposals. Lord Moira was afterwards empowered to negotiate with them, and it was expected that the treaty would be brought to a favourable issue. This, however, was also broken off; and at length, on the 8th of June, Lord Liverpool acquainted the House of Lords that the Prince-regent had that day appointed him first commissioner of the treasury, and authorized him to complete the arrangements for the ministry. The principal accessions afterwards made to that body were Lord Sidmouth, as secretary of state for the home department; the Earl of Harrowby, as lord president of the council; and Mr. Vansittart, as chancellor of the exchequer.

The first year of the Regency had been distinguished by success abroad, but at home great distress and dissatisfaction prevailed; and, in various parts of the country, disturbances of a very alarming nature burst forth. Towards the close of 1811, a spirit of riot and insubordination had manifested itself in the county of Nottingham, which, in the course of the present year, extended to the neighbouring counties, and, in some degree, pervaded all the manufacturing districts of England. The avowed and immediate object of the insurgents, who assumed the name of *Luddites*, was the destruction of certain articles of machinery, the use of which had superseded or diminished manual labour. In consequence of the report of the secret committee appointed by Parliament on the subject, a bill was brought into the House of Commons, which made it a capital offence to administer illegal oaths; and the power of the magistrates, in the disturbed districts, was considerably enlarged. In the interval between the spring and the summer assizes, special commissions were issued to try the offenders, when

numerous convictions took place for every gradation of offence; and, of the capital convicts, eight at Lancaster, and two at Chester, suffered the penalty of the law. In the metropolis some most barbarous murders and other atrocities, committed during the winter, excited general alarm; and a more efficient system of nightly watch was established than had hitherto existed.

In consequence of the distress of the commercial and manufacturing classes, the new ministers at length consented to the repeal of the orders in council; and on the 23d of June a declaration from the Prince-regent appeared in the London Gazette, absolutely and unequivocally revoking these orders as far as they regarded American vessels; with the proviso, that if, after the notification of this repeal by the British minister in America, the government of the United States should not revoke its interdictory acts against British commerce, that revocation on our part should be null and void. It afterwards appeared that, five days before the declaration was published in London, the government of the United States of America had declared war against Great Britain.

On the 17th of June Mr. Vansittart, the new chancellor of the exchequer, brought forward the budget, which had been nearly arranged by Mr. Perceval before his death. The amount of the charges he stated at 7,025,700*l.* for Ireland, and 55,350,048*l.* for Great Britain. This sum certainly was an enormous, he might say a terrible, extent of charge; but, great as it was, the resources of the country were still equal to it: and, by an enumeration of the ways and means, he produced a result of 55,890,460*l.*; including a loan of 15,650,000*l.* In the course of the year a former loan had been obtained to the amount of 8,788,825*l.*,

which, added to the new one, and to the exchequer bills funded in 1812, created an annual interest of 1,905,924*l.*; to provide for which, he proposed to discontinue the bounty on the exportation of printed goods, and to increase the duties on tanned hides and skins, glass, tobacco, sales by auction, postage of letters, and assessed taxes, the aggregate annual product of which he estimated at 1,903,000*l.* That on leather was strongly opposed, but the entire budget received the sanction of Parliament.

The advocates of the Catholic cause resolved to appeal again to the legislature; and Mr. Canning, on the 22d of June, proposed a resolution, that the House, early in the next session of Parliament, would take into consideration the laws affecting his Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects in Great Britain and Ireland, with a view to a final and conciliatory adjustment. This motion, which was supported by Lord Castlereagh, was carried by a majority of 225 against 106; and a similar resolution, moved in the Lords by the Marquis Wellesley, on the 1st of July, was supported by 125, and opposed by 126 voices. Of the royal dukes, two voted on one side, and three on the other; even the bench of bishops was divided, three of them voting for, and fifteen against, the pledge to consider the subject. A bill to extend and secure the privileges of the dissenters was introduced by Lord Castlereagh on the 10th of July, and carried; by which it was proposed to repeal certain intolerant statutes, and to amend others, relating to religious worship and assemblies, and to persons preaching or teaching therein. A bill for improving the ecclesiastical courts in England also received the sanction of the legislature.

Returns under the population act passed in the last

session were laid before Parliament; from which it appeared that, since the census of 1801, there had been an increase of 1,500,000 in Great Britain, the total population in that year being 10,472,048, and, in 1811, 11,911,644; making an increase of 1,439,596 residents, which, added to the number serving in the army and navy abroad, made a total increase of 1,609,498 persons. These results revived the important question of subsistence compared with population. By accounts produced about this time, it appeared that during eleven years, from 1775 to 1786, the average quantity of grain imported was 564,413 quarters; from 1787 to 1798, 1,136,101 quarters; from 1799 to 1810, including three years of scarcity, 1,471,003 quarters. The average prices were 30s. per quarter in the first period, 40s. in the second, and 60s. in the third; and, during the last year, not less than 4,271,000*l.* went out of the country for the sustenance of its inhabitants.

The act for prohibiting the grant of offices in reversion was renewed for two years. A bill was also introduced for abolishing sinecure offices executed by deputy, by which the office of paymaster of widows' pensions was done away; and the Regent's confidential servant, Colonel M'Mahon, on whom it had been recently conferred, although the commissioners of public accounts and of military inquiry had long since reported the place as one of those sinecures which ought to be abolished, was appointed keeper of the privy purse, and private secretary to his royal highness. Strong animadversions were made on the latter office; and the suggestion of Mr. Wilberforce, that the salary should be paid out of the Regent's privy purse, was adopted. An act likewise passed, by which payments of bank-notes, in or out of court, were declared legal,

pletely effected, that scarcely a tenth part of that extensive city escaped. The French troops entered Moscow on the 14th of September, before the flames had reached their height, and continued to occupy the ruins until the assemblage of fresh bodies of Russian troops, and the approach of inclement seasons, began to prove the danger of prolonging their stay.

Buonaparte, after having in vain offered peace to the Emperor of Russia, commenced a retrograde movement on the 19th of October; from which period the retreat of his army towards the frontiers of Poland was only an unbroken series of defeats and disasters, miseries and deaths, without a parallel in the annals of the world. From the time of his crossing the Niemen to that of the arrival of the wretched remnant of his army at Molodetschino, 300,000 human beings, French and Russians together, not including sick and wounded, were sacrificed to the guilty ambition of one man! Of the immense French force which invaded Russia, not 100,000 could be mustered at the close of the campaign! Buonaparte did not remain to witness the last scenes of the tragedy; but, leaving his men to perish by the sword of the enemy, by famine, or by frost, he literally fled in disguise from Smorgony to Paris, where he arrived on the 18th of December, and was the herald of his own discomfiture, intimating that France would now be more in need of him than he of France. His name and presence, however, were still terrible; and he proceeded, without fear or mercy, to drain the population and resources of France, in order to appear again in the field.

Russia exerted herself in the cabinet as well as in arms, as, in the course of the year, she effected peace with Britain, with Sweden, with Spain, and with Turkey. To Britain she gave the most substantial

proof of her sincerity, by charging her with the protection of her naval force, which was sent to winter in the English ports.

America, as already stated, declared war against England on the 18th of June, but the British government did not resort to the same measure till the 13th of October, in the hope that the repeal of the orders in council would have induced the Americans to revoke their hostile declaration; their conduct, however, betrayed so much partiality for the French, and so much dislike of the British and of their naval pre-eminence, that, although the latter government displayed as much conciliation as the extraordinary measures of Buonaparte would allow, the different spirit in which the most equivocal concessions of the French were received betrayed such a decided feeling of hostility towards England, that war could no longer be averted. By land the first efforts of the Americans were directed against Canada, which was invaded by General Hull with so little skill, that on the 16th of August he surrendered his entire army, consisting of 2500 men, with 33 pieces of ordnance, to an inferior force of British and Indians, under General Brock; and on the 13th of October a second army, repeating the attempt on Canada, was completely defeated, 900 prisoners being taken, and the remainder either killed or wounded. The loss of the English was very slight, with the exception of General Brock, who was killed while cheering his troops, before the engagement actually commenced. At sea the Americans were more successful; a circumstance to be ascribed chiefly to the great superiority of their frigates in size, weight of metal, and number of men. Their advantage, in the capture of the *Guerriere*, by the *Constitution*, consisted only in an accession of

fame, for the *Guerriere* was burnt; but, in their subsequent capture of the *Macedonian*, the prize was carried, in a sound state, into an American port. Their privateers also made numerous captures in the West Indies. Ministers were much censured by the opposition for a want of foresight, in not being prepared with a more efficient naval force to contend with the Americans; and several ships of the line were afterwards ordered out.

The naval force of France was in so reduced a state, that scarcely any thing remained to be done. In February, however, the *Victorious*, Captain Talbot, took the *Rivoli*, of 74 guns, in the Adriatic. In March the *Rosario* sloop, Captain Harvey, in company with the *Griffon*, defeated a French flotilla, of 13 sail, 6 of which were destroyed or taken off Boulogne; and in May the *Northumberland*, Captain Hotham, destroyed 2 French frigates and a brig, under the batteries of the Isle of Groa.

In the East Indies, the strong fortress of Bundelcund capitulated to a British force, under Colonel Martindell; an expedition, fitted out at Batavia, against Palambang, was completely successful; the military force employed in it afterwards subdued the Sultan of Djojocarta; and a treaty of alliance was concluded between Great Britain and Persia.

The new Parliament assembled on the 24th of November, when the House of Commons unanimously chose Mr. Abbot for their speaker; and on the 30th the Prince-regent, for the first time, delivered a speech from the throne, the topics of which were principally the political and military occurrences of the year. Alluding to the peninsular war, his royal highness expressed his firm reliance on the determination of Parliament to continue every aid in support of a con-

test, which had first given to the continent of Europe the example of persevering and successful resistance to the power of France. On the usual motion for an address in the House of Lords, the Marquis Wellesley took a review of the past Spanish campaign, and argued that the system adopted by ministers was timid without prudence, and narrow without economy; profuse without the fruits of expenditure, and slow without the benefits of caution. Lord Liverpool, in reply, dwelt on the great exertions which had been made, and the addresses were voted in both Houses without a division.

One of the first measures of the new Parliament was the grant of 200,000*l.* to the sufferers in Russia by the invasion of that country. The sum of 100,000*l.* was also granted to Lord Wellington.

For a long period no subject of a domestic nature had fixed upon the public mind with so much force as the discord and alienation which had, for years, subsisted between the Prince-regent and his illustrious consort. The cause of these dissensions it would be perhaps impossible to trace; but that they originated at a period so early as the first year of the residence of the Princess of Wales in this country, and that they were of such a nature as almost to dissolve the marriage contract, is clear from a correspondence which took place between those illustrious personages in the year 1796. The marriage of the prince and princess was solemnized on the 8th of April, 1795; the date of the birth of their only child was the 7th of January following; and in the month of April, in the same year, the princess was informed, by a message from the prince, conveyed through the medium of Lord Cholmondeley, that the intercourse between them was, in future, to be of the most restrictive nature—in fact, that a separation

as to all conjugal relations was, from that time, and for ever, to take place. In this arrangement the princess expressed her acquiescence, but she considered the subject of too important a nature to rest merely on verbal communication; and, in compliance with her request, the pleasure of his royal highness was communicated in writing. In 1805, when the royal pair had been for some years living in a state of separation, the Duke of Sussex informed the prince that Sir John Douglas had made known to him some circumstances respecting the behaviour of the princess, which might, if true, not only affect the honour and peace of mind of his royal highness, but also the succession to the throne. Sir John and Lady Douglas having made a formal declaration of the charges they thought proper to advance against the Princess of Wales, this declaration was submitted by the prince to Lord Thurlow, who gave it as his opinion that the matter must be referred to the King. In consequence of this opinion, and some further examinations which took place, a warrant was issued by his Majesty, dated the 29th of May, 1806, directing and authorizing Lord Erskine, as lord-chancellor; Lord Grenville, as first lord of the treasury; Earl Spencer, as one of his Majesty's principal secretaries of state; and Lord Ellenborough, as chief-justice of the court of King's Bench; to inquire into the truth of the said allegations, and to report to him thereon. These commissioners first examined on oath the principal informants, Sir John Douglas, and Charlotte, his wife; who both positively swore, the former to his having observed the fact of the pregnancy of her royal highness; and the latter, not only that she had observed it, but that her royal highness had made not the least scruple of talking about it with her, and describing the stratagems she

meant to resort to in order to avoid detection. Lady Douglas further deposed that, in the year 1802, the princess was secretly delivered of a male child, which had been brought up in her own house, and under her own inspection. 'On this part of the inquiry the commissioners, in their report to his Majesty, declared that there was no foundation whatever for believing that the child living with the princess was the child of her royal highness, or that she was delivered of any child in the year 1802; nor had any thing appeared to them that could warrant the belief that she was pregnant at any period within the compass of their inquiries. That child was, beyond all doubt, born in the Brownlow-street Hospital, on the 11th of July, 1802, of the body of Sophia Austin, and was first brought to the princess's house in the month of November following. As the declarations on which the commissioners had been ordered to inquire and report contained other particulars respecting the conduct of her royal highness, which must necessarily give occasion to very unfavourable impressions, they proceeded to state that several strong circumstances of this description had been positively sworn to, by witnesses who could not, in their judgment, be suspected of any unfavourable bias, and whose veracity, in this respect, they had no ground to question. "It appears, therefore," continued the commissioners, "that as, on the one hand, the fact of pregnancy and delivery are, to our minds, satisfactorily disproved, so, on the other, we think that the circumstances to which we now refer, particularly those stated to have passed between her royal highness and Captain Manby, must be credited until they shall receive some decisive contradiction; and, if true, are justly entitled to the most serious consideration."

Immediately on the receipt of a copy of this report, the Princess of Wales addressed a letter to his Majesty, in which, in the face of the Almighty, she asserted not only her innocence as to the weightier parts of the charge preferred against her, but her freedom from all the indecorums and improprieties which had been imputed to her by the lords commissioners, upon the evidence of persons who spoke as falsely as Sir John and Lady Douglas themselves. On the 17th of August she again wrote to the King, requesting that she might have authenticated copies of the report, and of the declarations and depositions on which it proceeded. Having received these papers, the princess submitted them to her legal advisers, Lord Eldon, Mr. Perceval, and Sir Thomas Plomer; and on the 2d of October she transmitted to his Majesty an elaborate letter on the subject. Nine weeks having elapsed without any reply, the princess again wrote, expressing her anxiety to learn whether she might be admitted to the royal presence; in reply to which her royal highness was informed that her vindication had been referred to his Majesty's confidential servants, who had given it as their opinion that it was no longer necessary for his Majesty to decline receiving the princess into his royal presence; but at the same time he hoped that such a conduct would be in future observed by her, as might fully justify those marks of paternal regard and affection which the King always wished to show to every part of his royal family. The princess no sooner received this communication than she named a day, on which, if agreeable to his Majesty, she would have the happiness to throw herself, in filial duty and affection, at his Majesty's feet. The day, however, was at first postponed by his Majesty, who afterwards informed

the princess that, at the request of the Prince of Wales, he declined to see her until her vindication had been examined by the lawyers of the prince, and until his royal highness had been enabled to submit the statement which he proposed to make thereon. The princess remonstrated in strong terms against this interposition, and trusted that his Majesty would recall his determination not to see her till the prince's answer respecting her vindication was received.

After a lapse of three weeks the princess informed his Majesty that, having received no intimation of his pleasure, she was reduced to the necessity, in vindication of her character, to resort to the publication of the proceedings upon the inquiry into her conduct; and that the publication alluded to would not be withheld beyond the following Monday. To avoid this painful extremity she had taken every step in her power, except that which would be abandoning her character to utter infamy, and her station in life to no uncertain danger, and possibly to no very distant destruction. This letter was dated the 5th of March, soon after which Mr. Perceval and his friends were intrusted with the seals of office; and when the ministerial arrangements were completed, a minute of council was made, dated the 22d of April, 1807, wherein it was humbly submitted to his Majesty, that it was essentially necessary, in justice to her royal highness, and for the honour and interest of his Majesty's illustrious family, that the Princess of Wales should be admitted, with as little delay as possible, into his Majesty's presence; and that she should be received in a manner due to her rank and station. Notwithstanding this advice, it does not appear that the princess was ever restored to complete favour, either at court or in the royal family, and her intercourse

with her daughter also became subject to great restraint. Nothing, however, occurred, that is publicly or officially known, till January, 1813, at which time the princess was so much debarred from the society of her daughter, that she determined to write to the Prince-regent on the subject; but, though her letter was transmitted to ministers on the 14th, it was not till the 23d that it was read to his royal highness. In this letter she dwelt with great force upon the injustice of widening the separation between mother and daughter, which she considered as not only cutting her off from one of the few domestic enjoyments which she still retained, but as countenancing those calumnious reports which had been proved to be totally unfounded. In consequence of this letter, which, soon after it was sent, appeared in one of the daily journals, the Prince-regent thought proper to direct that the letter of the Princess of Wales, and the whole of the documents relating to the investigation of 1806, (inappropriately called the 'delicate investigation,') should be referred to the members of his Majesty's privy council, and that they should report whether, under all the circumstances of the case, it was fit and proper that the intercourse between the princess and her daughter should continue to be subject to regulations and restrictions. In virtue of this appointment, the members of the privy council assembled on the 23d of February, when they reported to the Prince-regent, that, in their opinion, it was highly fit and proper that the intercourse between the Princess of Wales and the Princess Charlotte should continue to be subject to regulation and restraint.

On the 1st of March the Princess of Wales addressed a letter to the speaker of the House of Commons, in which she complained that the tendency of this report,

a copy of which had been transmitted to her by Lord Sidmouth, was to cast aspersions upon her honour and character. Thus assailed by a secret tribunal, before which she could not be heard in her own defence, she was compelled to throw herself upon the House, and to require that the fullest investigation might be instituted into the whole of her conduct during her residence in this country. On the 5th of March Mr. C. Johnstone, after avowing that he had no concert with, or authority from, the Princess of Wales, submitted to the House of Commons a motion for an address to the Prince-regent, requesting him to order that a copy of the report made to his Majesty on the 14th of July, 1806, touching the conduct of her royal highness the Princess of Wales, be laid before the House, with a view to an inquiry now, while the witnesses on both sides were still living, into all the allegations, facts, and circumstances, appertaining to that investigation; a proceeding which, in his opinion, was due to the honour of her royal highness the Princess of Wales, the safety of the throne, and the tranquillity of the country. Lord Castlereagh, in opposing the motion, said that the House could not consider the papers called for by the honourable mover at all necessary to remove any apprehension as to the successor to the throne. The innocence of the Princess of Wales, of the charge brought against her by Lady Douglas, had been established on the report of the members of two successive administrations; and, if a prosecution had not been instituted against her accusers, it did not arise from any doubt in the minds of the law officers as to the punishment that would be brought down upon the degraded and guilty heads of Sir John and Lady Douglas, but from a wish to avoid bringing such subjects before the public. It may

suffice to add, that the document called for was not produced; the princess was declared free from imputation; and addresses of congratulation poured in upon her from all quarters of the kingdom.

In consequence of the great accumulation of business in the Court of Chancery, a bill, proposed by Lord Redesdale, was passed, this session, for the appointment of a vice-chancellor of England, with full power to determine all cases of law and equity in the Court of Chancery, to the same extent as the chancellors had been accustomed to determine; and his decrees were to be of equal validity, but subject to the revision of the lord-chancellor, and not to be enrolled until signed by him.

Lord Castlereagh presented to the House of Commons, on the 3d of February, a series of papers respecting the war with America, accompanied by a declaration issued on the 9th of January by the Prince-regent, containing a vindication of the conduct of Great Britain, and an exposition of the principles on which it had been regulated. His royal highness declared that he could never acknowledge any blockade which had been duly notified, and which was supported by an adequate force, to be illegal, merely upon the ground of its extent, or because the ports or coasts were not at the same time invested by land; neither could he admit that neutral trade with Great Britain could be constituted a public crime, subjecting the ships of any power to be denationalized; that Great Britain could be debarred of her just and necessary retaliation through the fear of eventually affecting the interest of a neutral; or that the right of searching neutral merchant vessels in time of war, and the impressment of British seamen found therein, could be deemed any violation of a neutral flag.

Mr. Grattan having, on the 25th of February, carried a motion for referring the Catholic claims to a committee of the whole House by 264 votes against 224, he, on the 30th of April, presented to the House a bill for the removal of the civil and military disqualifications under which his Majesty's Roman Catholic subjects laboured. On the 13th of May the bill was read a second time, but it was lost on its passage through a committee, Mr. Abbot, the speaker, having divided the House on the clause by which Catholic members were to be admitted to a seat in Parliament; and, on its being rejected by a majority of 251 against 247, the bill was abandoned by its friends. The extensive principles of religious toleration professed in the discussions on this question rendered the time favourable for relieving persons impugning the doctrine of the Trinity from the pains and penalties to which they were by law subject, and Mr. William Smith moved for leave to bring in a bill for this purpose. As the law stood, he said, any one denying the existence of any of the Persons of the Trinity was disabled from holding any office, civil, ecclesiastical, or military; and, if a second time convicted, he was disabled to sue or prosecute in any action or information; or to be the guardian of any child, and was liable to imprisonment for three years. The bill underwent no opposition in either House. It may also be here mentioned that an act was passed, during this session, for establishing some proportion between the stipends of curates and the value of the livings which they served; the necessitous condition of many who performed the duty of non-resident clergymen having too long been a reproach to the church of England.

The heavy expenses of the war rendered a new plan of finance necessary; and, in submitting his proposi-

tions to a committee of the whole House, Mr. Vansittart said, that further measures might be taken for promoting and facilitating the redemption of the land-tax, the produce of which should be applied to the reduction of the national debt. In the second place, he proposed that, on all loans hereafter to be contracted, there should be a provision made for discharging the debt; and his third proposition was a measure for the repeal of part of the act of 1802, regarding the sinking fund. This fund should be sacredly supported to a certain amount; but he believed it might be shown that its enormous increase, by throwing into the market immense sums of money at one time, would produce effects similar to those of a national bankruptcy. When the establishment of a sinking fund was proposed by Mr. Pitt, in 1786, the national debt amounted to nearly 240,000,000*l.*—a sum of which few then living ever hoped to see the redemption; but which, by the steady perseverance of Parliament in this important measure, had already been redeemed; while, within the same period, 200,000,000*l.* of war taxes had been paid by the unexampled exertions of the country. By the original constitution of the fund the stock purchased by the commissioners was not cancelled, but was still considered to be their property; and the interest was regularly applied by them to the further discharge of the national debt. This arrangement, securing an accumulation by compound interest, was now abolished. Till the complete redemption of the debt, Mr. Vansittart proposed to make good to the sinking fund the annual sum of 870,000*l.* which would have been appropriated to the different sums provided for in 1802, if that consolidation had not taken place, and if those sums had been accompanied by the usual redeeming fund of one *per*

cent. If this plan were adopted no fresh taxes would be required for four years, except about 1,000,000*l.* for 1813. In submitting the proposed ways and means for the year, in case his plan with respect to the sinking fund should not be adopted, the chancellor of the exchequer stated that the sum to be raised was 1,136,000*l.* for which he meant to provide by an additional duty on tobacco, in lieu of the proposed auction duty of last year; additional duties on the consolidated customs, with some exceptions; an addition of 1*s.* 1*d.* per bottle on French wines; an increase of two-thirds on goods imported from France and her dependencies; an increase generally of one-half the present amount of the war duties on exports; and an additional duty of 1*d.* per pound on the export of foreign hides. The various resolutions were agreed to without material opposition.

One of the most important questions which came before Parliament during the session was the renewal of the charter of the East India company, concerning which innumerable petitions had been presented. On the 22d of March Lord Castlereagh observed that the term of the existing charter would expire in May, 1814, and his Majesty's ministers had to consider three propositions—Whether the existing government in India should be allowed to continue in its present state—whether an entire change should take place in the system—or whether a middle course should be adopted. On a question of so much importance it was deemed necessary to hear evidence at the bar; and the witnesses, chiefly persons who had occupied high stations in India, were generally against opening the trade, or allowing missionaries to repair to the east for the purpose of converting the natives. On this subject, however, so much zeal had been displayed

in many of the petitions, that, after much discussion, it was at length resolved that such measures ought to be adopted as might tend to the introduction of useful knowledge, and of religious and moral improvement, among the natives; and that facilities should be afforded to persons desirous of going to, and remaining in, India for these purposes. After the subject had occupied the attention of Parliament for some months, a bill, founded on certain resolutions proposed by Lord Castlereagh, was introduced, and read a third time on the 13th of July. It secured to the company, for a further term of twenty years, or until April, 1834, all their possessions in India, including the later acquisitions, continental and insular, to the north of the equator. Their exclusive right to commercial intercourse with China, and to the trade in tea, was confirmed. British subjects in general were permitted to trade to and from all ports within the limits of the charter, under certain provisions: all ships engaging in this private trade to be of the burthen of 360 tons or upwards, and those for the settlements of Fort William, Fort St. George, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's Island, to be provided with a license, which the court of directors were bound to grant: to all other places a special license was required, which the directors might grant or refuse, subject to an appeal to the board of controul. The church establishment in the British territories in India was placed under the direction of a bishop and three archdeacons. The application of the company's territorial revenues was directed to the maintenance of the military force and of the establishments at their settlements, the payment of the interest of their debts in England, the liquidation of their territorial debt, their bond debt at home, and such other purposes as the directors, with the

approbation of the board of controul, might appoint. The dividend on India stock was limited to *ten per cent.* until the fund, called the separate fund, should be exhausted, when it was to be ten and a half *per cent.*; and the number of King's troops, for which payment was to be made by the company, was limited to 20,000, unless a greater number should be sent to India at the request of the court of directors. Thus the new charter secured to the East India company, all the political power they could reasonably desire, whilst the continuance of their exclusive right of trading between China and Great Britain left the most valuable portion of their mercantile business without competition.

The treaty with Sweden was laid before Parliament on the 11th of June, and excited strong animadversions. The King of Sweden having engaged to employ a force of not less than 30,000 men in concert with the Russians, Great Britain so far acceded to a compact between the courts of Stockholm and Petersburg, as not only to oppose no obstacle to the annexation of Norway to Sweden, but to assist, if necessary, in obtaining that object by a naval co-operation; his Britannic Majesty also engaging, independently of other succours, to furnish to Sweden, for the service of the current campaign, the sum of 1,000,000*l.* and to cede to her the island of Guadaloupe. The King of Sweden reciprocally granted to the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, for twenty years, the right of *entrepôt* in the ports of Gottenburg, Carlsham, and Stralsund, for all commodities of Great Britain and her colonies, upon a duty of one *per cent. ad valorem*. Lord Holland deprecated the transfer of Norway, denounced the cession of Guadaloupe, and opposed the subsidy as inconsistent with the financial

difficulties under which the country was labouring. His proposal, however, to suspend the execution of the treaty, was rejected.

The session closed on the 22d of July with a speech from the throne, expressing satisfaction at the favourable state of affairs on the Continent, and regret at the continuance of war with the United States, declaring, however, that the Prince-regent could not consent to purchase peace by a sacrifice of the maritime rights of Great Britain. He approved of the arrangements for the government of British India, and expressed his resolution to employ the means placed in his hands by Parliament in such a manner as might be best calculated to reduce the extravagant pretensions of the enemy, and facilitate the attainment of a safe and honourable peace.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

In the north of Europe the year 1813 opened as auspiciously as the preceding year had closed. Numerous French levies were ordered, but victory continued to crown the exertions of the allies. One of the first events of importance which occurred was the defection of the Prussian General, D'Yorck, who entered into a convention with the Russian General, Wittgenstein, now appointed to the command in chief on the death of the veteran Kutusoff, but shortly afterwards succeeded by Barclay de Tolly. That convention the King of Prussia, then within the grasp of Buonaparte, refused to ratify; but no sooner had he freed himself from the apprehension of peril—no sooner did he perceive that there was a chance of

emancipation for himself and for his country—than he conferred the most distinguished approbation upon D'Yorck.

Advancing in the year, a Russian envoy was dispatched to Vienna; the Russians obtained possession of Hamburgh; an Austrian ambassador arrived in London; and Sweden, by landing a considerable force in Swedish Pomerania, struck the first decisive blow against the French. During the three first months of the year Buonaparte strained every nerve to recruit his armies, or, more properly speaking, to create new ones. By the 3d of April, decrees had been passed for levies to the amount of 535,000 men; and it was then estimated that he would have 400,000 on the Elbe, 200,000 in Spain, and 200,000 partly on the Rhine, and partly in Italy. On the 15th of April he left Paris, the Empress Maria Louisa having first been declared Regent of the French empire "till the moment when victory should return the emperor." Previously to this the King of Prussia had issued an edict, abolishing the continental system; the Emperor of Austria was understood to have formed the resolution of taking part against France, unless Buonaparte should listen to his offer of mediation; and the Crown-prince of Sweden, over whose intentions some clouds of doubt yet hung, had resolved to place himself at the head of the Swedish armies.

About this time a Danish mission arrived in England, and for a while the hope was indulged that the relations of peace between Britain and Denmark would be restored; but in consequence of the demands of the latter being such as could not be acceded to, or, according to other accounts, in consequence of the cession of Norway to Sweden being demanded by this country, the negotiation failed.

The campaign opened with several advantages gained by the allies. On the 2d of May was fought the great battle of Lutzen, in which the village of Gros-Gorschen was six times taken and retaken by the bayonet; but the allies at length drove the French from their positions, and remained masters of the field, though they subsequently found it necessary to fall back beyond the Elbe, which they effected in perfect order. Here they received considerable reinforcements, and another dreadful battle, or rather a succession of battles, took place from the 19th to the 22d, the result of which, according to the French accounts, was, that they lost between 11 and 12,000 men in killed and wounded, and the allies 10,000; and that they advanced about thirty miles, the allies retiring before them, unbroken and formidable, into the Prussian territory. These engagements were fatally ominous to Buonaparte: in the action of the 21st he was deserted by a part of the Saxon and of the Wirtemberg troops; and on the 22d the celebrated Marshal Duroc was mortally wounded. In an engagement previous to the battle of Lutzen the French also lost Marshal Bessieres, who was killed by a cannon-ball.

Buonaparte now listened, or affected to listen, to the proposition for a congress to be holden at Prague, for negotiating a general peace; and, in pursuance of that object, a suspension of hostilities was agreed upon on the 1st of June; and on the 4th an armistice, to continue on all points till the 20th of July, was finally concluded and ratified—hostilities not to recommence without six days' notice. At the request of Austria, who appears to have been the prime mover in this affair, the armistice was prolonged till the 10th of August: every attempt, however, at negotiation failed; and on the 17th, agreeably to notice, hostilities

again commenced. Austria, having signed a treaty by which she became a member of the grand alliance, having for its object the recovery of the independence of Europe, had issued a declaration of war against France; and at the different interviews which, during the armistice, had taken place between the respective sovereigns and their ministers, it had been determined that the Crown-prince of Sweden should be invested with the chief command of the combined forces.

Various movements and affairs of posts took place immediately on the renewal of hostilities; but it was not until the 28th of August that a general battle was fought before Dresden, in which General Vandamme and 6 other generals, with many officers of rank; 6 standards, 60 pieces of artillery, and 10,000 prisoners, were taken. On the 26th General Blucher, whose active and intrepid exertions obtained him that distinction which has attached so much glory to his name, had taken 50 pieces of artillery, 30 tumbrils and ammunition waggons, and 10,000 prisoners; and, renewing the contest on the following day, he took 30 more pieces of cannon, and 5000 prisoners. The loss of the French was also increased, and the allies proportionately strengthened, by the desertion of two Westphalian regiments during the principal battle. In the action of the 28th the brave, but unfortunate, General Moreau received a mortal wound, while in earnest conversation with the Emperor of Russia. He had arrived at Gottenburgh from America in May, and proceeding to join his countryman and early companion in arms, Bernadotte, was appointed to the high station of major-general of the allied army. His judicious advice respecting the plan of the campaign was considered of high importance, and his loss was much regretted by the allies. On the 29th Ge-

neral Blucher again defeated the enemy, taking General Putton prisoner, with 20 eagles, and 22 pieces of cannon.

The Crown-prince achieved a signal victory on the 6th of September, at Dennevitz, over Marshal Ney, on which occasion the loss of the French was stated at 16,000 men. From the recommencement of hostilities, down to this period, the entire loss of the enemy was estimated at upwards of 100,000 men, and 250 pieces of cannon.

Feeling the severity of their losses, an extraordinary sitting of the French senate was holden on the 4th of October, the Empress Maria Louisa attending in person. The object of this sitting was to pass a decree for another levy of 280,000 men. But France had yet greater, severer, losses to sustain. The defection of the King of Bavaria, and his junction with the allied powers; the defeat, the total rout, of Buonaparte, on the 16th, 18th, and 19th of October, with the loss of 120,000 men, and 120 pieces of cannon, were yet to be proclaimed to the world. Previously to this last and decisive conflict, (during which 17 battalions of German infantry, with all their staff, and 2 regiments of Westphalian hussars, with 22 pieces of artillery, came over to the allies,) Buonaparte had been concentrating his forces at Leipzig, while the allies extended themselves on every side, and prepared for battle. In the grand contest for this city a greater force was assembled than had almost ever acted on so confined a theatre, and the attack of the allies on the 16th, after much slaughter, left both armies in nearly the positions they held at its commencement. The 17th passed chiefly in preparation for the great action of the next day, which was directed upon the town itself, and at the conclusion

of which Buonaparte had lost 40,000 men, and 65 pieces of cannon. His army began to defile toward Weissenfels during the night, and in the morning of the 19th the magistrates of Leipzig requested a suspension of arms, for the purpose of arranging a capitulation; but, as it was easily seen that this was an artifice to facilitate the escape of the French, the Emperor Alexander would allow no respite, and the allied forces were led to the attack. After a short resistance they carried the city, which was entered by the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, and the Crown-prince of Sweden, about two hours after Buonaparte had quitted it. The French were flying in utter confusion over the Elster; the bridge was blocked up; prisoners were taken by thousands; and many who plunged into the stream perished. The whole of the rear guard fell into the hands of the allies; among the prisoners were Regnier, Brune, Vallery, Bertrand, and Lauriston, together with the King of Saxony and his whole court; Macdonald with difficulty gained the opposite bank, and Prince Poniatowski was drowned in the attempt.

Buonaparte retreated through Erfurt with about 70 or 80,000 men, and at Hanau was opposed by 30,000 Bavarians, under General Wrede, who did not retire until they had sustained a considerable loss. On the 2d of November he reached Mentz, and, continuing his retreat through Frankfort, crossed the Rhine on the 7th of November, when he again deserted the shattered remains of his army, and fled to Paris.

The immediate consequences of this grand overthrow of the tyrant were great and glorious beyond expectation. The house of Orange was reinstated in Holland; Hanover and Brunswick were restored to their rightful sovereigns; the Confederation of the

Rhine was dissolved; the Rhine itself was passed by the allies; and the "sacred territory" of France, covered, as it had been, by so many vassal states, was now laid open to its very frontier.

The first steps of Buonaparte after his arrival at Paris were to throw an oppressive weight of taxation upon the people, and to decree a new levy of 800,000 conscripts, to be sacrificed at the shrine of unprincipled ambition. Shortly after the issuing of this decree, the allied powers promulgated a declaration, offering peace to Buonaparte on the liberal basis of guaranteeing to the French empire "an extent of territory which France, under her kings, never knew." On this basis Buonaparte professed himself willing to treat; and a congress was therefore expected to assemble at Manheim to negotiate a general peace. It was the desire of Buonaparte that, during the negotiation, an armistice should be proclaimed; but to this the allies very prudently refused to assent.

The revolution in Holland appeared as the sudden burst of public feeling, though it did not take place without previous concert. The people of Amsterdam rose in a body, and, with the old cry of *Oranje Boven*, put up the Orange colours, and proclaimed the sovereignty of that house. On the 16th of November an administration was organized under the direction of the armed burghers, and many of the leading citizens took upon themselves the care of preserving order. Similar measures were adopted at the Hague, Rotterdam, and other places. The intelligence of these events was brought over on the 21st to London, by a deputation, for the purpose of inviting the Prince of Orange to place himself at the head of his countrymen—a call which he readily obeyed. On the 25th of November he embarked at Deal, accompanied by the Earl of

Clancarty; and on the 3d of December he made his solemn entry into Amsterdam, where he was proclaimed by the title of William the First, Sovereign Prince of the United Netherlands.

In the south of Europe the progress of the allied arms, this year, was equally gratifying. Spain and Portugal were almost cleared of the enemy; the sittings of the Cortes were transferred to Madrid; and the intrusive *king* was again compelled to seek his safety in flight. Lord Wellington had, on the 26th of May, entered Salamanca, the French precipitately evacuating the city on his approach; and on the following day, apparently fearful of being cut off by the rapid advance of the allied army, they commenced a hasty evacuation of Madrid, and of all the posts in its vicinity. Lord Wellington continued to advance, the French flying before him in every direction; and, on the 13th of June, they blew up the inner walls of Burgos, fled from that fortress, and abandoned the whole of the country to the Ebro, which General Graham immediately passed. Lord Wellington's next laurels were gathered on the plains of Vittoria, where, on the 21st of June, he obtained a complete victory over the French army, commanded by Marshal Jourdan. The enemy lost 151 pieces of cannon, 415 waggons of ammunition, all their baggage, provisions, and treasure, with the French commander's baton of a marshal of France. Lord Wellington continued the pursuit, and on the 25th took the enemy's only remaining gun. The battle of Vittoria was celebrated in England by general illuminations and splendid fetes; in Spain medals were struck upon the occasion; and the Cortes, by an unanimous vote, decreed a territorial property to Lord Wellington, in testimony of the gratitude of the Spanish nation.

So sensibly was Buonaparte affected by this defeat of Jourdan, that he immediately superseded that officer in the command, and appointed Soult to succeed him, with the title, or rank, of *Lieutenant-general of the Emperor*, an honour never before conferred upon any of Buonaparte's generals. Previously to his joining the army he issued a proclamation, stating that his imperial Majesty's instructions, and his own intentions, were, to drive the allies across the Ebro, and to celebrate the emperor's birth-day in the town of Vittoria! Soult, however, was destined, in his turn, to acknowledge the superiority of British prowess. From the 25th of July to the 2d of August a series of engagements took place, the result of which was the retreat of the enemy from the Spanish frontiers into France, with a loss of from 15 to 20,000 men, 4000 of whom were prisoners.

The siege of St. Sebastian, which had been invested shortly after the battle of Vittoria, was conducted by Sir Thomas Graham; and, on the 25th of July, an attempt to storm the fortress proved unsuccessful. As the port was necessary for the supply of provisions and other necessaries by sea, not a day was lost in prosecuting the siege; but it was not till the 31st of August that another assault was undertaken. The breach, which, at a distance, appeared very ample, proved to be of such a nature that it would admit the men only in single files; and, if any succeeded in gaining the narrow ridge of the curtain, his station proved instantly fatal. Two hours of severe but fruitless exertion ensued, and the attack was almost in a desperate state, when Sir Thomas Graham adopted the expedient of directing the guns against the curtain over the heads of his own troops. The firing was executed with such admirable precision and effect,

that in an hour the defenders were driven from their works, and retired to the castle, leaving the town in full possession of the allies, who sustained the severe loss of 2300 men in killed and wounded. The importance of the place induced Soult to cross the Bidassoa in great force for its relief; but he was gallantly repulsed by the Spanish troops alone. The castle surrendered on the 8th of September, and the garrison, now reduced to about 1800 men, were made prisoners.

On the 7th of October the allied army crossed the Bidassoa, and planted the British standard in France. Pampeluna, the siege of which had been left to the care of the Spanish General, Don Carlos d'Espagna, surrendered on the 31st of October; a circumstance which relieved Lord Wellington from every apprehension respecting his rear, and enabled him to concentrate and dispose of his forces at pleasure. His march was impeded by heavy rains; but, on the 10th of November, the French were driven from an intrenched position along the Nivelle, and pursued to Bayonne. On the 9th of December, and four following days, Soult, who intended to drive the allies across the Ebro, and to celebrate Buonaparte's birth-day in Vittoria, sustained another series of defeats on the banks of the Adour. Immediately after the action three German regiments, apprized of the important changes which had taken place in the northern parts of the Continent, went over in a body to the allies.

From this brilliant career of success in the north of Spain, we must now turn to the eastern coast of the Peninsula, where General Sir John Murray embarked his forces on the 31st of May, and, on the 3d of June, invested Tarragona; but, after advancing his batteries against it, he received reports that Suchet was marching from Valencia for its relief with a superior

force, and he immediately re-embarked his army, leaving his cannon in the batteries, although Admiral Hallowell was of opinion that they might have been brought off if he had remained till night. Sir John Murray's conduct afterwards underwent an investigation before a military tribunal, but it was attributed to an error in judgment. Lord William Bentinck, who succeeded him in the command, resumed the siege of Tarragona in August, and Suchet, who had retired into Catalonia, advanced to Villa Franca; and, the British general having withdrawn, he entered Tarragona, destroyed the works, withdrew the garrison, and again retired towards Barcelona. As the grand effort against France was making on the side of the western Pyrenees, the third Spanish army was detached in order to co-operate with Lord Wellington, and the remainder of the troops in this quarter acted on the defensive. Suchet, however, although able to maintain his footing in Spain, could not hope to gain any material advantage; and such was now the commanding situation of Lord Wellington, that the liberation of the Peninsula might be considered as accomplished.

The events of the war with the United States were at this period, when continental affairs were so highly important, viewed with comparatively little interest. The Americans collected a large force in the back-settlements, and again approached Detroit, when Colonel Proctor, on the 22d of January, routed their advanced guard, and captured 500 men, including their commander, General Winchester. In the end of April the American General Dearborn, with 5000 men, took possession of York, at the head of Lake Ontario, from whence General Sheaffe, who had not 1000 men, was compelled to retire. About the same time General

Vincent was obliged, by superiority of numbers, to evacuate Fort St. George, on the Niagara frontier; and, on the 5th of June, he compelled the enemy again to fall back on Niagara; but soon afterwards Colonel Proctor was attacked by the American General Harrison, with 10,000 men, who captured nearly the whole of his force; he himself escaping with a few attendants. On the 10th of September nine American vessels encountered six British on Lake Erie, in which unequal contest the American commander's vessel at one time struck; but at length the whole British squadron, reduced to a complete wreck, fell into the hands of the enemy. In the end of October three American armies, each amounting to 10,000 men, marched from different points upon Lower Canada; but, by the vigilance of Sir George Prevost, this great effort was completely frustrated, and, on the whole, the campaign was honourable to the British arms.

In her naval combats Great Britain did not fully maintain that decided superiority which had so long distinguished her, although in none did she suffer disgrace. The preceding year closed with the loss of the English frigate *Java*, Captain Lambert, with Lieutenant-general Hislop and his staff on board, bound to Bombay. She was met off the coast of Brazil by the American frigate *Constitution*, Captain Bainbridge, of much superior force; and after a furious action, in which she lost all her masts, and was completely disabled, she surrendered to her antagonist in a state which obliged him to set her on fire as soon as the wounded were removed. Captain Lambert and many of his crew were killed. The Peacock British sloop, of 18 guns, was also sunk in an engagement with the American sloop *Hornet*.

The time, however, arrived, in which the British flag was to recover its glory. Captain Broke, of the Shannon frigate, had been cruising for some time near the port of Boston, where the Chesapeake frigate then lay; and that the enemy might not be prevented from coming out, by the apprehension of having more than one opponent to deal with, Captain Broke, on the 1st of June, drew up before the harbour in a posture of defiance. Captain Lawrence, of the Chesapeake, accepted the challenge, and put to sea, while crowds of the inhabitants, in the greatest confidence as to the issue, lined the beach to witness the approaching conflict. After the exchange of two or three broadsides, the Chesapeake fell on board the Shannon, and they were locked together. At this critical moment Captain Broke, observing that the enemy flinched from their guns, gave orders to board. In less than ten minutes the whole of the British crew were on the decks of the Chesapeake; and in two minutes more the enemy were driven, sword in hand, from every point; the American flag was hauled down; and the British Union floated over it in triumph. In another minute they ceased firing from below, and called for quarter; and the whole service was performed in fifteen minutes from its commencement. Both ships came out of action in the most beautiful order, their rigging appearing as perfect as if they had only been exchanging salutes. The Shannon sailed immediately with her prize for Halifax, where Captain Lawrence died of his wounds. The loss, on both sides, was very severe for so short a contest; that of the English being 23 killed and 66 wounded, and the Americans about 70 killed and 100 wounded. In St. George's Channel the American sloop of war Argus was also captured by the British sloop Pelican.

In consequence of the deeply interesting state of affairs, Parliament was opened so early as the 4th of November, by the Prince-regent, with a speech from the throne, of which the new alliances against France, and the war with America, formed the principal topics. The Prince declared that no disposition to require from France sacrifices inconsistent with her honour, or just pretensions as a nation, would ever be an obstacle to peace; and that he was ready to enter into discussions with the United States on principles not inconsistent with the established maxims of public law, and with the maritime rights of the British empire. The addresses on the speech were carried without opposition. After the treaties with Russia and Prussia had been laid before the House, Lord Castlereagh introduced a bill to enable his Majesty to accept the services of a proportion of the militia out of the united kingdom, for the vigorous prosecution of the war. The bill passed through both Houses without opposition, every possible exertion to bring the great contest on the Continent to a speedy issue being considered desirable. The sanction of Parliament was also obtained, without a dissentient voice, for a loan of 22,000,000*l.* as well as for the aids granted to Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, either in direct subsidies or in bills of credit. Two millions had been advanced to Portugal, two to Spain, and one to Sweden. The sum to be allowed to Russia and Prussia was estimated at 5,000,000*l.*; and the advance to be made to Austria consisted of 1,000,000*l.* together with 100,000 stand of arms, and military stores in proportion. Men of all parties concurred in supporting the foreign policy of ministers, and the advocates of peace admitted that there were no means of securing that blessing but by perseverance in the

mighty contest which had been so gloriously begun. On the 20th of December Parliament was adjourned until the 1st of March, 1814.

The relations of peace and amity between Great Britain and Denmark were re-established on the 14th of January. Britain engaged to restore all her conquests, except Heligoland; prisoners of war, on both sides, were to be released; Denmark was to join the allies with 10,000 men, on receiving a subsidy of 400,000*l.* from England; and Pomerania to be ceded, by Sweden, to Denmark, in lieu of Norway. It was not, however, without great reluctance that the King of Denmark parted with one of his crowns, and the people could not be reconciled to a transfer which militated against their national and political prejudices. Violent commotions consequently took place; a declaration of Norwegian independence was made; and Prince Christian, hereditary Prince of Denmark, was proclaimed regent. Hostilities commenced between Sweden and Norway about the middle of July; by the latter end of August Prince Christian was compelled to relinquish his claims; and the sceptre of Norway, after having been so long annexed to the Danish dominions, passed into the hands of the King of Sweden.

The mortifications of Buonaparte were increased by the defection of Murat, his brother-in-law, who had been created King of Naples by his interest, and who, by a treaty dated the 11th of January, engaged to assist Austria with an army of 30,000 men, and opened his ports to the English. In Holland a body of English and Dutch, under Sir Thomas Graham, created a diversion in favour of the allies.

In the South of France, at the commencement of the year, the progress of Lord Wellington was re-

tarded by the state of the weather; but as soon as it became tolerably favourable he resolved to pass the Adour, in which he was greatly assisted by Admiral Penrose, with the vessels and boats collected for the service. The army now received its supplies from the little harbour of St. Jean de Luz, which was crowded with English shipping. The Gave d'Oleron was also passed, and Soult withdrew to a commanding position in front of Orthes, where, being reinforced by General Clausel, he determined to wait the issue of an action. On the 27th of February Lord Wellington issued his orders for a general attack, when the French were driven from one position to another, till the rapid advance of Sir Rowland Hill, who had forced a passage over the Gave de Pau, above the town, and marched a strong body of cavalry upon the road to St. Sevre, threw them into inextricable confusion. On the 28th the pursuit was continued to St. Sevre, where General Beresford crossed the upper part of the Adour. On the 1st of March the advance of the main army was impeded by heavy rains; Sir Rowland Hill, however, proceeded to Aire, which he attacked on the 2d, and, after an obstinate resistance, the enemy was again put to flight, leaving the road to Bourdeaux completely open. The retreat of Soult's army was towards Toulouse, whither the main body of the British pursued him; whilst Bayonne was invested by Sir John Hope.

The armies of the allies operating upon the Rhine probably exceeded half a million. Prussia and Austria had, between them, an effective force of 250,000; Russia alone had nearly 200,000; and to these may be added 30,000 Swedes, 10,000 Danes, and a large number of troops contributed by the princes of the Confederation of the Rhine. On crossing that im-

portant river the allies issued a proclamation, in which they declared that, though victory had conducted them into France, they had not come to make war upon her; their wish and object were, simply, to repel far from them the yoke that the French government endeavoured to impose on their respective countries—countries which possessed the same rights to independence and happiness as France. As conquest and splendour were not their objects, they therefore called upon the magistrates, land-owners, and cultivators, to remain at their homes, as the progress and stay of the allied armies would be characterized by the maintenance of public order, respect to private property, and the most severe discipline. Notwithstanding all they had suffered, they were not animated by a spirit of vengeance; they knew how to distinguish and separate the ruler of France from France herself: to him they attributed all their calamities; and not even were they disposed to retaliate on the French nation any of those miseries which the revolution had brought on Europe. While Buonaparte never made war but for the purpose of conquest, and to gratify his ambition, other counsels guided the allied monarchs. They, indeed, were ambitious; they, indeed, sought glory: but their ambition and glory were of a very opposite character from those of Buonaparte. The only conquest which they desired was that of peace; not such a peace as Buonaparte had often mocked Europe with, but a peace which should secure to their own people, to France, and to Europe, a state of real repose. “We hoped to find it before touching the soil of France; we come hither in quest of it!”

Marshal Blücher's army, amounting to 80,000 men, crossed the Rhine in three columns; General St. Priest at Coblenz, Generals Langeron and D'York at Caub,

and General Sacken at Mannheim; while, at the same time, Brabant was entered by 50,000 men, to co-operate with the forces from England. But it was not only with her troops and money that this country was determined to assist the allies in their glorious purpose of restoring tranquillity to Europe: as it was natural to suppose that the downfall of Buonaparte, or, if he displayed a sincere desire for peace, a treaty with him, would take place, it was proper, in either case, that Britain, who had done so much, and who was so much interested in the result, should have her representative present with the allied armies, and Lord Castlereagh was selected for this purpose.

Buonaparte found the French nation very reluctant in coming forward against the invaders; and the regular armies, which still remained to him, were by no means equal to cope with them: they therefore advanced into France with little opposition. By the middle of January part of the allied forces occupied Langres, an ancient and considerable town, 100 miles within the French frontier. The principal armies which Buonaparte had been able to collect were under the command of Marshals Victor and Marmont. The former advanced into Alsace, where he met the Bavarians, under General Wrede; the French, however, were compelled to evacuate this province, and, being brought to action in Lorraine, were defeated with great loss, and retreated on Luneville. The Cossacks, according to their usual custom, were greatly in advance, having pushed on between Epinal and Nancy. The second French army, under Marmont, was ordered to oppose the advance of Blucher; but neither in relative force nor equipment was it equal to this object. Marmont therefore retreated before the Prussian general to the Saare, behind which river, and

within the frontiers of Old France, he took up a position. His retreat was much harassed on one flank by Count Sacken, who occupied Worms, Spires, and Deux Ponts; while, on the other, he was approached by General D'Yorck, who occupied Treves and Saar-Louis. From this sketch it is evident that, even within a month after the allies had crossed the Rhine, they were gaining fast upon Paris, while the French armies which had hitherto been collected were quite incompetent to resist them with effect.

At length, on the 25th of January, Buonaparte left Paris, having been preceded on the 19th by Berthier, and having previously confided the regency, during his absence, to Maria Louisa. The French armies about this time were assembling within the line of the Meuse; Chalons on the Marne being the point towards which Macdonald, Marmont, Victor, and Mortier, were retreating from different quarters. The allied armies were also concentrating and pressing on the same point: Blucher by the way of Nancy and Toule; and Schwartzberg, who had the chief command of the Austrian and Russian armies, by Langres and Chaumont. Anxious to prevent the junction of his opponents, Buonaparte moved forward to St. Dizier, and on the 29th attacked Blucher at Brienne, where, after a sanguinary conflict, he remained master of the field. On the 1st of February he again attacked the Prussian general at La Rothière, where he was beaten, and driven over the Aube to Troyes, from whence the advance of Schwartzberg compelled him to retreat to Nogent, and abandon the ancient capital of Champagne. This rapid career, which threatened speedy ruin to Buonaparte, stimulated him to fresh exertions, and he determined on the plan of concentrating his force at particular points. His first efforts were directed against

Blucher, whom he compelled, after a variety of actions, to retreat. In the mean time, however, Prince Schwartzenberg, with the Austrians, was advancing upon Paris, and a corps had gained possession of Fontainebleau on the 17th of February, which obliged Buonaparte to turn his arms on that side; and, after some fighting, Schwarzenberg was compelled to withdraw his positions on the Seine, and establish his head-quarters at Troyes. This city was evacuated by the allies on the 23d; it was, however, recovered on the 4th of March by General Wrede, at which time Buonaparte was marching against Blucher.

During these operations the plenipotentiaries from the several belligerent powers assembled at Chatillon, where Caulincourt appeared on the part of France. The treaty, which proceeded upon the ground of placing France in the same territorial situation as she stood under her kings, with some addition to her ancient limits, contained a proposition that her capital should be occupied by the allied armies till the conclusion of a definitive treaty. Buonaparte, elated by the temporary successes which he had recently gained, seized with fury the paper containing the proposal, exclaiming, while he tore it, "Occupy the French capital! I am at this moment nearer to Vienna than they are to Paris!" The advantages, however, of the allies were immense: every fortress which fell on either side of the Rhine augmented their means of invasion; the Oder, the Elbe, and the Rhine, had become a triple line of reserves, from which they continually drew reinforcements; and the obstacles that had hitherto retarded their progress were daily diminishing. Anxious, however, to ascertain Buonaparte's views and intentions, the allied sovereigns allowed Caulincourt to present a counter-proposition, stipulating only that it

should correspond with the spirit and substance of the conditions already submitted; and the 10th of March was fixed upon, by mutual consent, as the period at which the final determination should be made.

In the mean time a treaty was signed at Chaumont, by which Austria, Russia, England, and Prussia, undertook each to bring 150,000 men into the field, and engaged, should Buonaparte reject the propositions submitted to him, to employ all their means in a vigorous prosecution of the war. Britain also engaged to furnish a subsidy of 5,000,000*l.* to be equally divided among the other three powers; reserving to herself, however, the right of furnishing her contingent in foreign troops, at the rate of 20*l.* *per annum* for infantry, and 30*l.* for cavalry. The treaty finally stipulated that the league should continue for twenty years, and should extend also to such other powers as might determine to join the confederation. At length, on the 15th of March, the French plenipotentiary presented a counter-proposition, demanding that the Rhine should form the boundary of the French empire; that Antwerp, Flushing, Nimeguen, and part of Waal, should be ceded to France; and that Italy, including Venice, should form a kingdom for the Viceroy, Eugene Beauharnois. In addition to these claims, he demanded indemnities for Joseph, Jerome, and Louis Buonaparte; and for the Viceroy, as Duke of Francfort. As these demands would confer power on France out of all proportion to the other great political bodies of Europe, the ministers of the allied sovereigns declared that to continue the negotiations, under the present auspices, would be to renounce the objects they had in view, and to betray the confidence reposed in them. Austria herself abandoned Buonaparte to his fate, and the congress was dissolved.

The operations of either party were not relaxed in consequence of these negotiations. On the 5th of March Buonaparte was repulsed at Soissons, which town, after having twice changed masters, had been most opportunely reduced by Winzingerode and Bülow, at the head of 30,000 men. He then made a flank movement on Craone, which covered the left wing of Blücher's army, and an obstinate engagement ensued, during which the Prussian general detached 10,000 cavalry, with instructions to throw themselves on the flank and rear of the French; but this manœuvre was unsuccessful, and on the 7th Blücher retreated in admirable order upon Laon, where he was joined by the Russians who had evacuated Soissons. Here he was attacked by Buonaparte, with his whole force, on the 9th; and, after a severe action on that and the following day, he retained his position, the French retreating towards Soissons, with the loss of 48 pieces of cannon and 5000 prisoners. In Blücher Buonaparte found an antagonist, who, in every vicissitude, presented an example of constancy and heroism; and to whose prowess he is said to have paid an involuntary tribute, on one occasion, by exclaiming, that he would rather fight ten regular generals than that old drunken hussar; for the day after he had totally defeated him, he was sure to find him as ready as ever to renew the combat.

In the course of his route Buonaparte seized Rheims, and continued his march towards Prince Schwartzemberg, who, on the 21st, took a position before Arcis-sur-Aube. After an obstinate engagement, Buonaparte, apprehensive of a surprise from Blücher, avoided a general action, and retreated upon Vitry, and St. Dizier. His efforts were now directed to prevent the junction of Schwartzemberg and Blücher;

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the most invincible confidence in the final result of the campaign, considering the armies to which he was opposed as cut off in their retreat, and enclosed in the heart of France. Roused at length from this delusion by intelligence, received on the 27th, that the allies were marching directly on Paris, he advanced to the Aube. On the 29th, at daybreak, whilst preparing to pass that river at the bridge of Doulançourt, a courier arrived from Paris with intelligence that Marshals Marmont and Mortier, after having fallen back before the enemy, were making dispositions to defend the capital; and, aware of the insufficiency of the means that existed for its defence, he foresaw the catastrophe which was about to destroy the great edifice of his power. The troops left to defend the capital consisted of the remains of the corps which had fallen back before the allied armies; 5 or 6000 regulars in garrison, commanded by Generals Compans and Ornans; and 30,000 National Guards, of whom 8 or 10,000 at the most were fit for active service. This small army, under the immediate command of Joseph Buonaparte, assisted by Marshals Mortier and Marmont, and the Governor-general, Hulin, had taken a position in front of the heights of Montmartre, under cover of some intrenchments hastily thrown up, and lined with 150 pieces of artillery; their line extended to the villages of Pantin, Romainville, and Belleville. The canal, and the nature of the ground altogether, rendered this position a strong one, particularly as the allied cavalry had no extent of ground to make a charge. In the interim, Buonaparte had issued orders to defend the capital to the last extremity, being himself, as he announced, on his march to relieve it. At dawn on the 30th the allies, wishing, if possible, to spare the

but in furthering his object, by passing the Aube with his whole army near Vitry, he left himself open to the bold decision which was immediately adopted by the allies, who lost no time in placing themselves between the French army and Paris, and proceeding, with an united force of at least 200,000 men, to the capital of the French empire.

On the 24th of March Prince Schwartzenberg established his head-quarters at Vitry; and on the same day Field-marshal Blucher arrived, with a large proportion of his army, at Chalons. Generals Winzingerode and Czernicheff were now dispatched, with 10,000 horse and 50 pieces of cannon, to observe the march of Napoleon on St. Dizier, and to menace his rear. The arrangements being complete, the King of Prussia issued orders to Marshal Blucher to direct his force on Paris; and on the 25th the Austro-Russian army faced about from Vitry, and took the same direction, by the route of Fère Champenoise, where a junction between the two armies was formed. On their march the allies had the good fortune to intercept a column of 5000 men, escorting from Paris an immense convoy of ammunition and provisions for Buonaparte. The grand army established its head-quarters at Coulommiers on the 27th, having marched twenty-seven leagues in three days, and being now no more than thirteen leagues from Paris. The plan of the allied sovereigns was to concentrate the whole of their force on the right banks of the Marne and the Seine, and to attack Paris on the north, by taking a position on the heights of Montmartre. On the 28th they continued their progress to Meaux, and in the evening arrived in the neighbourhood of the French metropolis, without having encountered any formidable obstacle.

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his brother, the Count d'Artois, was appointed Lieutenant-general of France, and made his public entry into Paris on the 12th of April, surrounded by several of the great officers of state, and attended by a group of French marshals. On the 15th the Emperor of Austria, who had hitherto remained at Dijon, also entered the French capital in great state. On the 23d a convention was signed between the allied powers and France, by which it was agreed that hostilities should every where cease, and that the allied armies should evacuate the French territory in fourteen days; the boundary line to be observed being that which constituted the limits of France on the 1st of January, 1792. Fifteen days were allowed for mutual evacuations in Piedmont, and twenty days in Spain; the fleets were to remain in their then present stations; but all blockades were to be raised, and the fisheries and coasting trade permitted. All prisoners were mutually liberated, and sent to their respective countries. On the 3d of May Louis the Eighteenth (who had been conducted into London by the Prince-regent, and conveyed from Dover to Calais by the Duke of Clarence, at which places he was joyfully welcomed) made his solemn entry into Paris. The procession was very brilliant, and passed in perfect order and decorum; but the expressions of satisfaction were by no means universal, particularly among the soldiery. On the preceding day he had issued a declaration, forming the basis of that constitutional charter by which the liberties of the nation were to be secured. The representation was to be vested in two bodies, the chambers of peers and of deputies; the taxes to be freely granted; public and individual liberty to be secured; the liberty of the press, saving necessary precautions for public tranquillity, to be respected;

liberty of worship allowed ; property to be inviolable, and the sale of national estates irrevocable ; the ministers responsible ; the judicial power independent, and the public debt guaranteed ; the pensions, ranks, and honours of the military, and the ancient and new nobility, were to be preserved, and the legion of honour maintained.

On the 30th of May a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris, by which the integrity of the French boundaries, as they existed on the 1st of January, 1792, was assured, with some small additions on the side of Germany and Belgium, and a more considerable annexation on that of Savoy, including Chamberi and Annecy, together with Avignon, the Venaissin, and Montbeliard. The navigation of the Rhine was declared free—the duties payable on its banks to be hereafter settled ; Holland, under the sovereignty of the house of Orange, was to receive an increase of territory—the sovereignty in no case to be united with a foreign crown ; the German states were to be independent, and united by a federal league ; Switzerland to be independent under its own government ; Italy, out of the Austrian limits, to be composed of sovereign states ; Malta, and its dependencies, to belong to Great Britain. France recovered all the colonies, settlements, and fisheries which she possessed on the 1st of January, 1792, excepting Tobago, St. Lucie, and the Isle of France, with its dependencies, which were ceded to England ; and a part of St. Domingo, which was to revert to Spain. The King of Sweden renounced, in favour of France, his claims on Guadaloupe, and Portugal restored French Guiana. In her commerce with British India France was to enjoy the facilities granted to the most favoured nations, but not to erect fortifications in the establish-

ments restored to her. The naval arsenals and ships of war, in the maritime fortresses which she surrendered in the late convention, were to be divided between her and the countries in which such fortresses were situated; Antwerp, in future, to be only a commercial port. Plenipotentiaries from the powers engaged in the late war were to assemble at Vienna, to complete the dispositions of the treaty. The King of France engaged to co-operate with his Britannic Majesty in his efforts for obtaining the total abolition of the slave trade; and, after the private claims of her subjects on France should have been satisfied, Great Britain generously consented to remit the whole excess in her favour for the maintenance of prisoners of war.

The restoration of peace, after so long and arduous a struggle, was hailed in England with the most lively satisfaction; an air of gladness, joy, and exultation, was diffused over the whole country; and the metropolis was converted into a scene of gaiety, never surpassed on any occasion, by the arrival, early in June, of the Emperor of Russia and his sister, the King of Prussia and his sons, with the most distinguished of the allied generals, including Blucher, Platoff, Barclay de Tolly, Czernicheff, D'Yorck, and Bulow. Prince Metternich, and several of the most distinguished continental statesmen, also accompanied them. They were received and entertained with all the honours due to such illustrious visitors; and, after a stay of about three weeks, during which illuminations, galas, and feasting, were the order of the day, they returned to the Continent, to be present at a general congress of the European powers at Vienna.

No time was lost in the evacuation of France by the allied forces; but the immense number of troops released from captivity became an object of serious

anxiety to the new government, which, although hailed with joy by the well disposed, who viewed with pleasure the termination of a long and sanguinary war, was decidedly unpopular with the soldiery, whose passions it had been the business of Buonaparte's life to flatter, and whose affections, notwithstanding all his reverses and all their sufferings, he had effectually secured. Marshal Davoust, under whose tyrannical occupation Hamburg had been long and severely suffering, was one of the last of Buonaparte's generals that submitted to the Bourbon government; but he at length acquiesced in the orders sent for the evacuation of the city, which was gratified with the restoration of its former independence.

One of the first acts of the French provisional government was to facilitate the return of Pope Pius the Seventh to his dominions; and, to evince his gratitude to all Europe, one of the first acts of his holiness was to re-establish the order of Jesuits, a detestation of whose principles had, in 1773, become so universal in the Catholic world, that their suppression was effected by the concurrent efforts of the Bourbon sovereigns. He had also announced his intention of reviving all the monastic institutions, and invited the dispersed members of those fraternities to repair to Rome, where the vacant convents should be prepared for their reception.

In Spain, one of the latest artifices of Buonaparte was that of proposing to liberate Ferdinand the Seventh, on condition that he should deliver up certain garrisons to the French. By this means the enemy would have been reinforced with 20,000 men, which might have turned the scale against Lord Wellington, and thus the spreading of the insurrection in favour of Louis the Eighteenth, in the southern departments of

France, would have been impeded : General Copons, however, succeeded in obtaining the person of Ferdinand without acceding to the insidious demand of the French ruler. The liberated monarch arrived at Gerona on the 24th of March, and was every where enthusiastically received by the Spanish people. Their beloved sovereign was restored to their wishes, and their hearts cherished the reviving thought of peace, happiness, and security ; but, alas ! how soon was the intoxicating chalice fated to be dashed from their lips ! One of the first impulses of the “ beloved Ferdinand ” was to overturn the constitution which had been framed by the Cortes—to spurn his deliverers from his presence—to condemn the saviours of their country to exile, imprisonment, and death—to re-establish the Inquisition—and to encompass himself within a pestiferous swarm of bigotted priests and crime-diseased noblesse, the wretched remnants of his father’s infamous court. From the arbitrary measures pursued by Ferdinand, it was evident that he would be disposed to reduce by force, rather than reclaim by conciliation, the revolted colonies. A compulsory loan, imposed on the merchants of Cadiz, enabled him to equip 8000 troops, the command of which was intrusted to General Murillo ; and the expedition sailed, towards the close of the year, for South America, where Montevideo held out for the mother country, though blockaded by land and sea, and reduced to great extremities. The naval force of Buenos Ayres was commanded by Commodore Brown, an Englishman, against whom the Governor of Montevideo sent out a flotilla, over which Brown obtained a complete victory, and Montevideo soon afterwards surrendered. In Chili the authority of Ferdinand the Seventh was acknowledged, on condition that trade be freely per-

mitted with allied and neutral nations, especially with Great Britain. In Venezuela the royalists obtained a victory which enabled them to regain possession of the Caracas.

Parliament was not re-assembled till the 21st of March, 1814, when the allied armies were within a few days' march of their ultimate destination. The first business of importance was a motion made by the chancellor of the exchequer, for a grant of 2,000,000*l.* on account of the army extraordinaries, in addition to 3,000,000*l.* before voted. On the 22d Mr. Goulburn introduced a bill for preventing the grant of any patent office in the colonies for any longer term than during such time as the grantee should discharge the duties of the office in person, and behave well therein. A bill, introduced by Sir Samuel Romilly, for taking away corruption of blood in cases of felony and high treason, was passed, with an amendment proposed by Mr. Yorke, purporting that no attainder of felony not extending to high treason, petty treason, and murder, do lead to corruption of blood.

No discussions during this session so much engaged the public attention as those on the corn laws, the system of which had been so fluctuating, that, at one time, the exportation had been encouraged by bounties, while, at another, the contrary policy had been pursued. The price of corn being at this time high, the intended measure, the object of which was to prohibit importation, excited general alarm, especially in the manufacturing and commercial districts, and its promoters were accused of a design to sacrifice the trading to the landed interest, in order to enable the country gentlemen to keep up their greatly increased rents. On the 5th of May Sir Henry Parnell moved a resolution for permitting, at all times, the exportation of grain

from any part of the united kingdom. This being carried, a second resolution was proposed for regulating the importation of grain by a schedule, according to which, when the home price of wheat was 63s. per quarter, or under, foreign wheat should be liable to a duty of 24s. ; when the home price was 86s. it should be duty free ; and at all intermediate prices the same ratio should be preserved. A third resolution was passed for the warehousing of foreign corn, duty free, for re-exportation. A bill, founded on the first resolution, was passed ; but, in consequence of the great number of petitions against any alteration in the corn laws, the further consideration of measures for regulating the importation was postponed to another session, by a majority, in the House of Commons, of 116 to 106.

On the 3d of May the Prince-regent conferred upon Field-marshal the Marquis of Wellington the dignities of Duke and Marquis of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, by the style and title of Marquis Douro and Duke of Wellington, in the county of Somerset. To support the dignity thus conferred upon the duke, the sum of 400,000*l.* was voted to him by Parliament, in addition to 100,000*l.* granted on a former occasion. At the same time Sir John Hope was raised to the peerage, under the title of Lord Niddry ; Sir Stapleton Cotton was created Lord Combermere ; Sir Thomas Graham, Lord Lynedoch ; Sir Rowland Hill, Lord Hill ; and Sir William Beresford, Lord Beresford ; and the dignities of the three latter were accompanied by a grant of 2000*l.* *per annum* each. On the 28th of June the Duke of Wellington took his seat for the first time in the House of Peers, when he modestly expressed his thanks for the approbation bestowed upon his conduct.

A short time before the arrival of the royal visitors in this country, the Princess of Wales received a letter from the Queen, acquainting her that she had received a communication from her son, the Prince-regent, in which he states that her Majesty's intention of holding two drawing-rooms in the ensuing month having been notified to the public, he must declare that he considers that his own presence at her court cannot be dispensed with; and that he desires it may be distinctly understood, for reasons of which he alone can be the judge, to be his fixed and unalterable determination not to meet the Princess of Wales, upon any occasion, either in public or in private. The princess replied that, though she could not so far forget her duty to her King and to herself as to surrender her right to appear at any public drawing-room, she should, in the present instance, yield to the will of the Prince-regent, and should not present herself at the drawing-rooms of the next month. The princess next addressed a letter to the prince, demanding to know what circumstances could justify the proceeding he had thus thought fit to adopt. After open persecution and mysterious inquiries, upon undefined charges, the malice of her enemies, she said, fell entirely upon themselves, and she was restored to the full enjoyment of her rank in his Majesty's court. She had been declared innocent, and would not submit to be treated as guilty. Her royal highness proceeded to state that occasions might arise (one she trusted was far distant) when she must appear in public, and his royal highness must be present also. The time selected for this proceeding, she said, made it peculiarly galling: many illustrious strangers were already in England, including the heir of the house of Orange, who had announced himself as her future son-in-law; others were expected,

of equal rank, to rejoice with his royal highness in the peace of Europe; her daughter would, for the first time, appear in the splendour and publicity becoming the approaching nuptials of the presumptive heiress of the empire; and, of all his Majesty's subjects, she alone was prevented from appearing in her place to partake of the general joy, and deprived of the indulgence in those feelings of pride and affection permitted to every mother but her. Her royal highness also addressed a letter to the speaker of the House of Commons, animadverting on the dangerous nature of the fixed and unalterable determination of the prince, and enclosing, for the information of the House, the correspondence which had passed on this occasion. After the letters had been read, Mr. Methuen moved, "that an humble address be presented to his royal highness the Prince-regent, to pray that he would be graciously pleased to acquaint the House by whose advice he was induced to form the 'fixed and unalterable determination never to meet her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales, upon any occasion, either in public or private.'" Ministers contended that it was not within the province of the House to interfere in this case; and the debate, which was carried on with closed doors, terminated in Mr. Methuen's consenting to withdraw his motion, from a hope that the rigorous proceeding announced against the princess would not be acted upon at the approaching drawing-rooms. In this expectation the honourable gentleman was disappointed; but when the subject was again resumed on the 23d of June, Mr. Methuen dwelt more upon the necessity of increasing the establishment of the Princess of Wales than on the indignity and injustice offered to her; on which Lord Castlereagh observed that it was the first time Parliament had been told that an in-

creased provision for her royal highness was the object which her friends had in view. His lordship proceeded to state that he had no objection to submit to the House, on a future day, a proposal on this subject; and, in conclusion, adverted to a fact not before generally known, namely, that there was in existence an instrument dated in the year 1809, signed by the Prince and Princess of Wales, and approved by his Majesty, and to which his signature, as well as that of a large proportion of the ministers of the time, was applied, which provided for a distinct establishment for the princess, and admitted the fact of the separation. On the 4th of July Lord Castlereagh proposed that such an increase should be made to the income of the princess as would enable her to maintain an establishment more suited to her situation in this country; and he thought the most desirable measure would be to raise it to that point to which it would be advanced in the event of the death of the Prince-regent: his proposal therefore was, that the net annual sum of 50,000*l.* should be granted to the Princess of Wales, and that the 5000*l.* and 17,000*l. per annum* which she at present enjoyed should be withheld from the Prince-regent's income. This sum was, at her own request, reduced to 35,000*l.*; and the princess shortly afterwards asked, and readily obtained, permission to make a tour to the Continent.

Public attention was strongly excited during the session by a prosecution against Lord Cochrane and seven others, for a conspiracy to create a fraudulent advance in the price of the public funds, by circulating false intelligence of the defeat and death of Buonaparte. The trick was carried into effect, with temporary success, on the 11th of February; and the whole of the defendants being found guilty, the sen-

tence passed on Lord Cochrane was, that he pay a fine of 500*l.*, be imprisoned twelve months, and stand once in the pillory: this part of the sentence was, however, remitted. On the 5th of July the House of Commons expelled his lordship by a majority of 140 to 44: he, however, asserted his entire ignorance of the whole plot; and the electors of Westminster felt so confident of his innocence, that they re-elected him not only without opposition, but in triumph. His name was also erased from among the Knights of the Bath.

The national income and expenditure were, on the 18th of June, brought under the consideration of the House of Commons. The whole amount of the joint and separate charges for the service of the year were stated by the chancellor of the exchequer at 67,517,478*l.* for England; and for Ireland at 8,107,004*l.*, making the total expense of the year 75,624,572*l.* To meet the charges upon the public revenue, the taxes and the loans of the year for England would produce 67,708,545*l.* The exports of the past year had very considerably exceeded those of the most flourishing year at any former period. The total amount of the loan for 1814 was 24,000,000*l.* being 19,500,000*l.* for England, and 5,500,000*l.* for Ireland; and, from the terms upon which the loan had been negotiated, it might be calculated that the public would remain charged with the yearly interest upon it of 4*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* *per cent.* At the close of this statement the usual resolutions were read and agreed to, after a remark from Mr. Ponsenby that the public interest demanded that the property tax should not be collected after the 5th of April next. Apprehensions, however, were still entertained that the tax might be renewed; and the inconclusive replies given by government to the

inquiries made on that subject excited a very deep and general alarm throughout the country. The first place which took measures to petition Parliament against the renewal of the tax was the city of London; and the example of the metropolis was so generally followed, that the voice of the people, which, when distinctly and perseveringly raised, must always be heard, finally prevailed.

The state of the sister kingdom had, for some time, been such as to call for the adoption of additional measures for securing the public tranquillity; and on the 8th of July Mr. Peel, chief secretary for Ireland, proposed the renewal of a measure which had received the sanction of Parliament in 1807. The clause of the insurrection act, which it was now intended to revive, provided that, in case any part of the country should be disturbed, two justices of the peace should be empowered to summon an extraordinary sessions of the county, which should consist of seven magistrates; that the lord-lieutenant, in council, on receiving a report from the magistrates so assembled, stating that the ordinary law was inadequate to the preservation of the public peace, should be empowered to issue a proclamation, commanding all residents within the same district to keep within their houses from sun-set to sun-rise; that no person should be suffered to remain drinking in a public house after nine o'clock at night; and that any persons detected out of their houses at the prohibited times, without being able to show good cause, should be liable to be transported for seven years. It was also required that the lord-lieutenant should order a special session of the peace to be held, at which the persons offending against this law should be tried, and, if necessary, the trial by jury should, in these cases, be dispensed

with. Other provisions sanctioned the employment of the military; enabled the magistrates to pay domiciliary visits; and to break open doors if denied admission. The bill was warmly discussed in its several stages, but it ultimately passed both branches of the legislature; and, at the close of the session, obtained the royal assent. Parliament was prorogued, on the 30th of July, by the Prince-regent in person.

The result of the negotiation which took place between Great Britain and Holland, in the course of the summer, was, that this country should retain the Cape of Good Hope, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, but restore Batavia, Surinam, Curaçoa, and St. Eustatia. A negotiation was also entered into for uniting Great Britain and Holland more closely, by a marriage between the young Prince of Orange and the Princess Charlotte of Wales; but, from some cause with which the public has never been fully acquainted, though it does not appear that the prince was ever very acceptable to his intended consort, the issue was not successful.

On the 20th of March the Prince of the Netherlands opened the grand meeting of the notables of the country, to take into consideration the plan of the constitution, which was viewed and adopted with acclamation. Decrees were also passed for the establishment of the freedom of the press; the restoration of the Dutch language, which had fallen into disuse during the union of Holland with France; the relief of the inferior clergy; the solemn observance of the Sabbath, and other purposes. The Austrian Netherlands were conferred on the house of Orange, in the hope that so important an acquisition would render it capable of preserving its independence, and maintaining a rank among the sovereigns of Europe.

On the 25th of September the Emperor of Russia and the King of Prussia made their solemn entry into Vienna; but it was not till the 1st of November that the formal installation of the congress took place. The royal personages congregated on this occasion consisted of the Emperors of Russia and Austria, and the Kings of Prussia, Denmark, Wirtemberg, and Bavaria; with ambassadors from England, Russia, Austria, Prussia, France, Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, Italy, and the minor states of Germany. One of the first acts of the congress was to recognise a new regal title annexed to the British crown, and to confirm to Hanover the rank of a kingdom, the title of Elector being rendered unsuitable to present circumstances by the sixth article of the treaty of Paris, by which it was agreed "that the states of Germany should remain independent, and joined in a federal union." On this ground several of the powers concurring in the treaty had invited the Prince-regent to renounce the ancient title, and to assume that of King, with some extension of territory, by which the arrangements required for the future welfare of Germany would be facilitated; particularly as all the ancient electors, and the Duke of Wirtemberg, had already erected their states into kingdoms. A general diet assembled on the 15th of December, which was opened by the Duke of Cambridge, and a constitution was agreed upon on the plan of a representative government.

In Italy the territories formerly possessed by the sovereign house of Sardinia were restored to Victor Emanuel; and, by a protocol signed in the congress of Vienna on the 14th of December, the territory forming, before the French revolutionary wars, the venerable republic of Genoa, was definitively united

to the states of his Sardinian Majesty. The annexation of all the other districts in the north of Italy to the Austrian dominion followed almost as a matter of course. Lord William Bentinck had given the Genoese some hope that their city would be restored to its former independence; but Lord Castlereagh expressed the regret of himself, and his brother ministers, that they had not been able to preserve its separate existence, without the risk of weakening the system adopted for Italy; and to this state-necessity the ancient republic was obliged to submit, as was that of its old rival, Venice, to the political arrangement which finally annexed it to Austria. Of all the sovereigns by right of French conquest, Murat, King of Naples, alone held his acquisitions undisturbed.

CHAPTER XXXV.

AT any other period a contest between Great Britain and America would have formed a primary object of attraction to the historical reader, and have demanded ample notice from the historian; but, during the continuance of a conflict in which embattled nations were the actors, and empires the stake—whilst the united armies of all Europe were approaching, and finally occupying, the proud city of Paris—every other topic was of secondary interest. When the United States declared war against the most powerful maritime state in the world, the utter annihilation of their navy—if navy it could be called—was most confidently predicted; and their military force, though numerically formidable, was principally of an irregular kind, without discipline, unaccustomed to the

hardships of war, and destitute of that patient endurance and subordinate spirit, without which armies, however strong, are always liable to become the mutinous depositaries of panic. A war so differently affecting the different parts of the Union could not fail to call forth those violent political contentions for which that republic is so much distinguished. At Boston the declaration of war was the signal of a general mourning; all the ships in the harbour displayed flags half-mast high; and in that, as in other cities of the northern states, public meetings of the inhabitants were held, at which a number of resolutions were passed, stigmatizing the approaching contest as unnecessary and ruinous, and as tending to a connexion with France, destructive to American liberty and independence. Immediately after the declaration a party was formed, called the Peace Party, which combined nearly the whole of the federalists throughout the United States, and by whom a systematic opposition, principally directed against the national finances, was maintained to the latest period of the war. With the democratic party, and in the southern states in particular, where swarms of privateers were preparing to reap a rich harvest among the West India islands, the popular sentiment was decidedly in favour of war; and, of all the cities of America, in this interest, Baltimore stood in the foremost rank in zeal and in violence. The first important event, the capture of the British frigate *Guerriere* by the *Constitution*, created in England astonishment not un-mixed with dismay; whilst in America the contest became in consequence more popular, and the spirit of maritime enterprise more animated and enthusiastic. When the captain and crew of the *Constitution* landed at Boston, particularly unfavourable to the war as

that town had been, they were received with every mark of honour and distinction, and a splendid entertainment was given to Captain Hull and his officers.

In the interval between the breaking out of the war and the close of the year the elections took place, and the federalists, in common with the English people, cherished the expectation that the power and influence of Mr. Madison, and the war party in America, were nearly at an end. The disasters in Canada, however, instead of rendering the war more generally and decidedly unpopular, changed the dislike which had been entertained for it in the northern states into a determination to prosecute the contest with increased vigour. The democratic interest was consequently strengthened; and, on the 2d of December, the re-election of Mr. Madison was secured. Soon after the American government had declared war against Great Britain, overtures of a pacific nature were made by both parties; but, although much diplomatic discussion took place on both sides, the negotiation proved unsuccessful. In each country the original cause of the war, and the responsibility of its continuance, were imputed to the enemy: admitting, however, the existence of the British orders in council, and the impressment of American seamen, to have justified the United States in declaring war in the first instance, yet, when the former of these evils was removed, and when an offer to suspend hostilities by sea and land was made through the medium of the British authorities in America, in order to adjust the still existing differences, it was the duty of the American government to have accepted the pacific overture. The limits of the right of blockade stand fixed, by the law of nations, upon grounds that admit of no serious dispute; and, with regard to the impressment of seamen,

America did not deny that Great Britain had a right to reclaim her own subjects; and the English government did not pretend to have any right to impress any who were really and truly American citizens. The whole quarrel, then, was about the means of asserting these rights; and had the ministers of both countries sought for peace in the spirit of peace, that inestimable blessing must have been speedily obtained: the conquest of Canada, however, against which, notwithstanding all their reverses, the Americans had yet met with sufficient success to give them some hope of its final accomplishment, may be regarded as one of the objects for which they were induced to persevere in the war.

The message of the American president, at the opening of Congress on the 7th of November, 1813, announced that Great Britain had declined an offer, which had been made by the Emperor Alexander, to mediate the existing differences between that power and the United States; and, under such circumstances, the president conceived that a nation proud of its rights, and conscious of its strength, had no choice but in exertion of the one in support of the other. The door of negotiation was not, however, finally closed; for, while Great Britain was disinclined to commit the decision of the question at issue to the mediation of a power that, in common with America, might be disposed to circumscribe her maritime claims, she professed a readiness to nominate plenipotentiaries to treat directly with those of the American government, and expressed an earnest wish that their conferences might result in establishing between the two nations the blessings of peace. This proposal, which was communicated by Lord Castlereagh to the American secretary of state on the 4th of November, was accepted by the government of the

United States without hesitation, and Gottenburg was fixed upon as the seat of discussion. The negotiations, however, which were removed to Ghent, did not commence till the following August, and then proceeded with little prospect of success, although the restoration of peace in Europe had removed the principal causes of difference.

Surpassed in magnitude and eclipsed in splendour by the achievements of their brethren in Europe, the operations of the British forces on the American frontiers and coasts, though, on the whole, they fully upheld the national character, may be succinctly narrated. After the disgraceful failure of the enemy in their combined and simultaneous invasion of Canada and attempt upon Montreal in October, 1813, they were convinced not only that an overwhelming superiority of force was of little avail against British troops, but that the inhabitants were not so favourably disposed towards them as they expected. In the course of the year they had, however, acquired the ascendancy on Lake Erie; but, instead of expelling the British from the Niagara frontier, they had, on the last day of December, lost all their own posts on that river, their strongest fortress being taken, in a masterly style, by Colonel Murray, under the orders of General Drummond, who had been recently appointed to the command in Upper Canada. Sir James Yeo, a naval officer of high reputation, who commanded on Lake Ontario, and the American Commodore Chauncey, were each indefatigable in preparing for the campaign of 1814, and Sir James was prepared for any operation before Chauncey was in a condition to meet him; but, being unsupported by an adequate land force, nothing important took place. The Canadian bank of the Niagara became the theatre of a quick succession of

obstinate and sanguinary conflicts, and General Brown, who was opposed to General Drummond, proved himself the ablest of the American land officers; but the struggle closed by leaving the two armies in the same positions they had occupied in the spring.

In June and July, the British government having, on the dethronement of Buonaparte, resolved to prosecute the contest with increased vigour, a numerous fleet arrived in the St. Lawrence from Bourdeaux, with 14,000 of those troops which, under the Duke of Wellington, had raised the military reputation of their country to the highest pitch of renown; but it was not till the 3d of September that Sir George Prevost entered the American territory, and advanced against Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, in conjunction with a flotilla under Captain Downie of the navy. The American flotilla, which was somewhat superior in force, lay at anchor in Plattsburg bay. After waiting for the arrival of the British vessels, during which time the American troops were busily employed in improving their defences, and increasing the difficulties of attack, a joint assault was agreed upon; and, on the morning of the 11th, Captain Downie stood into the bay, and attacked the American squadron. Not a moment was now to be lost on shore; but, from some unexplained cause, the advance of the army was not sufficiently rapid, and, during an obstinate struggle of more than two hours, the vessels were successively obliged to strike. When the light troops were close in upon their works, and half an hour would have avenged the fall of the gallant Downie, who was mortally wounded early in the action, the loss of the fleet induced Sir George Prevost to recall them, but they reluctantly yielded this triumph to a weak and undisciplined enemy;

and in the night he commenced a precipitate retreat, abandoning a large quantity of stores. The whole loss of the army, in killed and wounded, did not exceed 200 men; but the disgraceful issue of the expedition had such an effect on the minds of the soldiery, that above 800 of them had deserted before the retreat was concluded. Hitherto it had been considered that Sir George Prevost had ably conducted the defence of Canada; but he was now recalled to answer to charges preferred against him by Sir James Yeo, for his neglect to co-operate with Captain Downie: he did not, however, live to await his trial.

A strong naval force, with an adequate number of troops, was also dispatched against the American coasts, and their operations were attended with general success. On the 19th of August Admiral Sir Alexander Cochrane and Major-general Ross entered the Patuxent; and the army, being disembarked, immediately commenced its march for the city of Washington, while Admiral Cockburn, with a flotilla of armed boats, proceeded up the river on its flank. As these boats opened the reach above Pig-point they perceived the Baltimore flotilla, under Commodore Barney, which had taken refuge in the Patuxent. Those vessels were soon afterwards discovered to be on fire, and sixteen of them blew up in succession. The seventeenth fell into the hands of the British, and several merchant schooners were captured or destroyed. On the 24th, when the land forces, in number about 5000, came within five miles of Washington, they encountered about 9000 Americans, whom they completely routed; and at eight o'clock in the evening they entered the new metropolis of the United States, when they immediately proceeded to set fire to the capital, including the senate-house and

the house of representatives. The arsenal, the dock-yard, with a frigate nearly ready to be launched, and a sloop of war, the treasury, the war office, the ropewalk, the president's house, and a great bridge over the Potowmac, were also consigned to the flames. Private property was respected, except some houses from which guns had been discharged at the British troops. On the evening of the 25th the army left Washington, it being necessary to retreat before any great force could be assembled; and some wounded were necessarily left behind, who were treated with humanity. On the 30th the whole force re-embarked without molestation. The destruction of public buildings, not designed for military purposes, was resented, by the Americans, as an insult which one free people ought not to inflict on another. This enterprise was followed by an attack on the town of Alexandria, situated lower down the Potowmac. On the 29th Fort Washington, by which the river is there protected, surrendered to Captain Gordon, of the Seahorse, accompanied by other vessels; and the common-council of Alexandria capitulated, on condition that private property should be respected. All naval and military stores and merchandise, being delivered up, were shipped on board twenty-one vessels which were found in the harbour; and the British departed, laden with spoil, without sustaining much injury from the batteries on the river.

The next object of attack was Baltimore; and on the 12th of September the forces under General Ross effected a landing near North Point, about thirteen miles from the town. Having forced an intrenchment which had been drawn across the peninsula, they advanced; and, while their van guard was engaged with the riflemen in the woods, a bullet pierced

the breast of General Ross, who expired on the spot, deeply lamented by the army. Colonel Broke, who succeeded to the command, attacked and dispersed a large body of Americans; but, on advancing to the town, he found it so strongly defended, that he was compelled to relinquish the enterprise.

Among the losses sustained at this period was that of Captain Sir Peter Parker, commanding the *Mene-la-us*, who was mortally wounded while leading a body of 100 seamen against an American force stationed near Bellair; and the British sloop of war *Reindeer* was taken by the American sloop *Wasp*; but this misfortune was fully compensated by the capture of the United States frigate *Essex*, off Valparaiso, on the western coast of South America, by the English frigate *Phoebe*, which relieved the British traders in that quarter from a formidable enemy.

An expedition, which sailed from Halifax in July, under General Pilkington, had reduced Moose Island, and two others in the bay of Passamaquoddy. In September this advantage was followed up by an expedition which caused the enemy to burn a fine frigate, called the *John Adams*, and compelled them to leave the whole district, from that bay to the Penobscot river, in possession of the British.

In consequence of the alarm created by these operations, measures were submitted to congress by the American government for making adequate defensive preparations, and it was proposed that the present military establishment, amounting to 62,448 men, should be preserved and rendered complete; and that an additional permanent force of at least 40,000 men should be raised for the defence of the cities and frontiers. A bill was accordingly introduced, providing that the white male inhabitants of the United States, between

the ages of 18 and 45, should be distributed into classes of 25 in each; every class to furnish one able-bodied man to serve during the war; that assessors should determine the territorial precincts of each class, so that the property in each division should be as nearly equal as possible; that, in case of failure, a penalty should be levied on each class, to be divided among them, in proportion to the property of individuals; and that every five male inhabitants liable to military duty, who should join to furnish one soldier during the war, should be exempt from service.

An expedition had been for some time in preparation against New Orleans; and in the beginning of December Admiral Cochrane's squadron arrived at the scene of action, with a considerable body of troops, commanded by Major-general Keane. The first object was to reduce a flotilla of gun-boats on Lac Borgne, which was gallantly performed, on the 14th, by Captain Lockyer, with the boats of the squadron. On the 23d the first division of troops, amounting to 2400 men, were landed within six miles of the city, and in the night they were attacked by the Americans; but, after sustaining some loss, they maintained their position. On the 25th, on which day the second division joined, Major-general Sir E. Pakenham, an officer of distinguished merit, who had served in the Peninsula, arrived, and took the command. He found the British army posted on a piece of flat ground, with the Mississippi on the left, and a thick wood on the right. The enemy were stationed behind an intrenchment, extending from the river on their right to the wood on their left, a distance of about 1000 yards. This line was strengthened with flank-works, and had a canal in front, about four feet deep: on the further bank of the Mississippi the Americans had a battery

of twelve guns, which enfiladed the whole front of their position. The disposition for the attack, which was to be made during the night, was formidable; but unexpected difficulties, increased by the falling of the river, occasioned considerable delay to the entrance of the armed boats, and the attack did not take place until the columns were discernible from the enemy's line at more than 200 yards' distance. The troops engaged on each side may be estimated at 10,000; and, since the breaking out of the war, no engagement had, perhaps, been fought with so much bravery—none, certainly, with so disastrous a result. The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to 2040, including, in the former, the commander-in-chief, who fell while bravely encouraging his men on the edge of the glacis, and, among the wounded, Generals Gibbs and Keane, the former of whom expired on the following day. The loss of the enemy, according to the official statement of their general, was incredibly small, not exceeding 71. General Lambert, on whom the command now devolved, after holding a consultation with Admiral Cochrane, determined to re-embark the troops, and to abandon the enterprise. The concluding operation of the war was the capture of Fort Bowyer, on Mobile Point, in the Gulf of Mexico, which, being wholly unable to resist the British force, capitulated on the 11th of February, 1815.

Before these events took place, the labours of the plenipotentiaries assembled at Ghent were brought to a close; a treaty of peace and amity having been signed on the 24th of December, which was afterwards ratified by both governments. The treaty, which was negotiated, on the part of America, by Messrs. Adams, Bayard, Clay, Russel, and Gallatin,

and of Great Britain by Lord Gambier, Mr. Goulburn, and Dr. Adams, was silent on the grand cause of the war and primary object of dispute—the right of search; but, as America abandoned her claim of compensation for the captures made under the British orders in council, and omitted all mention of her original pretensions, her resistance to the maritime claims of England must be considered as tacitly abandoned. All conquests, on either side, were to be restored—Britain retaining the islands in Passamaquoddy bay, which were hers by the treaty of 1783. Under this article the Americans had only the defenceless shore of the Detroit, on the frontier of the two provinces, to offer in exchange for their fortress of Niagara and the important post of Michilimackinac, both of which were still in possession of the British. The exclusive right of fishing on her own coasts of Newfoundland, and of trading to her own settlements in India, were secured to Britain. The Indians were to be restored to the rights and possessions which they held in 1812; it was reciprocally agreed that commissioners should be appointed for settling the disputes respecting boundaries; and both parties engaged to continue their efforts for the entire abolition of the slave trade.

The delay between the actual conclusion of the treaty, and the circulation of that important intelligence, enabled the English navy to obtain another triumph. The President, one of the largest frigates yet sent to sea by the United States, commanded by Captain Decatur, accompanied by the Macedonian armed brig, laden with provisions, sailed from New York during one of those gales in which the blockading squadron was driven out to sea. After a long chase the Endymion, Captain Hope, came up with the

former, when a severe action ensued, in which the President, having crippled her adversary in the rigging, was enabled to get ahead. The British frigate *Pomona* now coming up the President surrendered, after exchanging a few broadsides. The mutual advantages of a free interchange of commercial communication between two countries, whose interest it is at all times to cherish the relations of peace, were resumed shortly after this event; and in both was the termination of the war hailed with unfeigned satisfaction.

The session of Parliament was opened on the 8th of November, 1814, by a speech from the Prince-regent, of which the leading topics were the pending negotiations at Ghent, and the intended congress at Vienna. Adverting to the supplies for the ensuing year, his royal highness regretted the necessity of so large an expenditure, and concluded by recommending that Parliament should proceed with due caution in the adoption of such regulations as might be necessary for extending the trade of Great Britain, and securing her commercial advantages. The usual address was carried without a division.

Of the few questions which engaged the attention of Parliament before the Christmas recess, one of the most important related to the continuation of certain militia regiments in service without disembodimenting them. On the 11th Earl Fitzwilliam brought the subject before the House of Lords, observing that great care had been taken by the legislature to prevent the burthen of the militia ballot from pressing more heavily on the public than the exigencies of the service required; that the prerogative of the crown had been restrained, and the establishment of this species of force regulated, by various acts of Parlia-

ment. Of the four specific cases in which the militia might be called out, viz. actual invasion, imminent danger thereof, insurrection, and rebellion, he contended that not one then existed; and that, therefore, the balloted men were legally entitled to return to their homes. Lord Sidmouth replied, that, while the country remained at war, it had been always understood that the service of the militia might be continued as long as the crown should judge it to be of public advantage. This question was afterwards discussed in the House of Commons, on a resolution moved by Sir Samuel Romilly, that, as peace had been concluded more than six months, and the country enjoyed internal tranquillity, the still keeping part of the militia embodied was contrary to the act of the 42d of the King, and a violation of the principles of the constitution. The solicitor-general admitted that ministers would act illegally if they advised the King to call out the militia, except in one of the cases mentioned in the act; but, as no specific period had been assigned at which it was to be disembodied, he would maintain that, having been once legally embodied, it might legally be so continued. On a division, the resolution was negatived by 27 against 34. On the eve of the recess, a bill, introduced by Mr. Peel, to amend the act for preserving the peace in Ireland, was passed without opposition.

Determined on one more desperate effort, Napoleon Buona parte again stood forward, to alarm, and it might almost be said to appal, the surrounding nations. On the 20th of February, 1815, he laid an embargo upon all the vessels in the ports of Elba, assembled his guards, and declared his purpose of contending for the imperial crown of France. On the 26th (Sir Neill Campbell, the English commissioner appointed to reside at

Elba, being at this time in Italy) he embarked in four vessels, with about 1000 men; on the 1st of March he effected a landing near Cannes; and in four days the astounding news reached the capital. Monsieur, the king's brother, immediately set off from Paris with Marshal Ney, who treacherously kissed the hand of Louis, and swore to bring his old comrade to the capital in an iron cage. His Majesty at the same time convoked an extraordinary meeting of the legislative body, which instantly voted addresses, and declared their inviolable attachment to the throne. The king and his ministers adopted such measures as seemed best calculated to ensure the public safety; but, unfortunately, the army was rotten at the very core. The French soldiers had never heartily joined with the enemies of their chief; his name and the imperial eagle were still dear to them; and, as they claimed an important share in the establishment of his military glory, so they had continued to sympathize in his disgrace, and to look back with regret on those halcyon days when conquered and invaded nations administered to the gratification of their ruling passion. Aware of the disposition of the army, and confiding in their attachment, Buonaparte does not appear to have made any specific arrangement; or adopted any regular plan of march; but, as soon as a favourable opportunity of escape presented, to have trusted entirely to the power of his name and presence.

Followed by his little troop, with drums and music, some field-pieces, and a superb carriage, Buonaparte set off from Cannes on horseback. Arriving within a league of Grasse, he found the inhabitants of that place in great agitation; and, deeming it imprudent to enter, he left his field-pieces and carriage at the gate, and took the road to St. Vallier. At Grenoble

a large quantity of ammunition fell into the hands of Buonaparte, who pushed on, at the head of only 600 horse, to Lyons, whence the disaffected troops had previously compelled Monsieur to retire. Here he halted to refresh his followers; reviewed the whole of his army, which now made a formidable appearance; assumed the imperial state; and began to issue proclamations and decrees. The same rebellious spirit appeared in other places. Marshal Ney, having issued a proclamation, dated the 14th of March, describing the Bourbons as unfit to reign, and recommending his troops to join the august Napoleon, went over to the invader at Lons le Saulnier. Secure in the support of the army, Buonaparte proceeded on his march, and entered Paris on the evening of the 20th. On the following morning he showed himself at a window in a garden of the Thuilleries; and, about noon, he reviewed the troops on the Place Caroussel. Louis the Eighteenth, accompanied by Marshals Berthier and Macdonald, had previously left Paris for Lisle, whither Monsieur and Marshal Marmont were also retiring with a considerable force. One of the first measures of Buonaparte was to dispatch Caulincourt to invite the Archduchess Maria Louisa to reunite her fortunes with his; and, for some time, the Parisians were amused with the expectation that their empress would return. The imperial carriages were ordered from St. Cloud to meet her and her son on their route from Vienna; their arrival was even announced; but neither the Empress of France nor the King of Rome appeared. An attempt to kidnap the baby monarch proved also unsuccessful.

As soon as the intelligence of Buonaparte's irruption had reached Vienna, the allied powers issued a solemn manifesto, in which they declared, that, by

thus breaking the convention which had established him in the island of Elba; Buonaparte had destroyed the only legal title on which his existence depended; that, by appearing again in France with projects of confusion and disorder, he had deprived himself of the protection of the law, and had manifested to the universe that there could be neither peace nor truce with him; that he had placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations; and that, as an enemy and disturber of the tranquillity of the world, he had rendered himself liable to public vengeance. The allies, at the same time, expressed their firm determination to maintain entire the treaty of Paris, and to employ all their means, and unite all their efforts, to prevent the peace of Europe from being again troubled. This declaration was followed by a new treaty, signed at Vienna on the 25th of March, by which the contracting parties solemnly engaged not to lay down their arms but in agreement with each other; nor until Buonaparte should be wholly and completely deprived of the power of exciting disturbances, and of renewing his attempts to obtain the supreme power in France.

About a fortnight after his return to Paris Buonaparte severally addressed letters to the allied sovereigns, stating that he had been restored by the unanimous wish of the French people, and that he was desirous of maintaining peace on the terms which had been settled with the Bourbons. The Congress, to which these letters were generally referred, agreed that no answer should be returned to them; and, both at home and abroad, he found himself surrounded by difficulties of no ordinary kind. In several parts of France the royalists were in arms; and, however willing his military associates might be to support

him in the absolute dominion he had possessed as emperor, the republican party, on which he was chiefly obliged to depend, would only receive him as the head of a popular government. The liberty of the press, which he reluctantly conceded, facilitated the circulation of much that was obnoxious to him; and the interference of the police, on such occasions, was resented by the republicans as an infraction of the promised freedom. The declarations of the allied powers were also distributed throughout France, in the hope that, by making his danger more apparent, he would be compelled to surrender many sovereign prerogatives. His cabinet became the scene of vehement contention; and he was at length induced to conciliate the attachment of the council of state by a solemn promise to adhere to their advice in the formation of a new constitution. Having thus divided their strength and lulled their suspicion, he took advantage of their apathy, fled from the Thuilleries, seized the impregnable palace of Bourbon, and, surrounded by a body of his guard, he published the outline of a new constitution of his own arrangement, under the singular title of "An additional Act;" the mode of promulgating which, without the sanction of any public body, was evidently dangerous to national freedom; and neither the republicans nor the constitutionalists relished this anticipation of the solemn national compact, for which he had appointed the *Champ de Mai*. The royal charter, subsisting as a fundamental law, could not be innovated upon; but the *additional act* in some measure confirmed the mass of contradictory laws already prescribed by Buonaparte, and was liable to be modified, limited, and controlled, by the old imperial decrees embodied

in the constitutions to which this act was proffered as a supplement.

The assembly of the *Champ de Mai* was held on the 1st of June, various arrangements having been previously made to influence the votes; and after a declaration of the arch-chancellor, that the new constitution was accepted by an almost unanimous concurrence of votes, but unaccompanied by the slightest evidence of their validity, the emperor signed the additional act, to which he swore upon the evangelists to adhere. He then distributed his eagles to the troops of the line and the national guard, as they passed before him, and swore to defend their colours. The next point was to assemble the chambers, which took place on the Sunday following, when the representatives elected for their president M. Lanjeuais, an individual peculiarly obnoxious to Buonaparte; but, notwithstanding the chagrin occasioned by this circumstance, he complacently expedited all his civil affairs, such as the installation of his chambers of commons and of peers; informed them that his first duty called him to meet the formidable coalition of emperors and kings that threatened their independence, and that the army and himself would acquit themselves well; recommending to them the destinies of France, his own personal safety, and, above all, the liberty of the press. When the ceremonials were completed, Buonaparte quitted Paris for the frontiers, where, by one of those rapid movements which have so frequently distinguished his career, he put his forces in motion upon the Sambre on the 15th of June.

The close of the last year had left the whole fortified frontier of the Belgic provinces on the side of France occupied by strong garrisons, chiefly of Eng-

lish troops, or in the pay of England; and, since Buonaparte's return, continued reinforcements had been sent from this country, the whole of which were placed under the command of the Duke of Wellington. In the latter part of May the Prussian army, under Prince Blücher, had arrived in the neighbourhood of Namur, and frequent conferences took place between the two generals relative to co-operation. Buonaparte determined to attack them while the Russians and Austrians were too distant to afford succour, and on the 15th of June, at daybreak, the Prussian outposts on the Sambre were driven in; General Ziethen was compelled to retire from Charleroi through Flénu, to unite himself with the main Prussian army, which lay in the vicinity of St. Amand and Ligny; and, towards evening, an advanced corps of Belgians was driven to the position of Les Quatre Bras.

The Duke of Wellington, although he had used his best endeavours to gain immediate intelligence when Buonaparte joined his army, does not appear to have been very early informed of that event: and yet it was of the utmost consequence that he should be so; for, in consequence of the want of provisions, and especially of forage, he had found it necessary to disperse his army very much. The British headquarters were at Brussels; and certainly the sudden appearance of the French upon the Sambre was an unexpected piece of intelligence there. On the night of the 15th the Duchess of Richmond gave a ball in that city, at which the Dukes of Wellington and Brunswick, Lord Uxbridge, and other officers, were present. There they received the intelligence that the work of death was begun; and many, who were dancing at midnight, were, within a few hours, in action, and received their death-wounds in their ball-

room dress. In the midst of the festivities the bugle sounded and the drum beat in Brussels; in less than an hour the troops began to assemble in the park; and at four in the morning the division of Sir Thomas Picton, who had himself arrived from England that very night, proceeded towards Namur; but, as soon as the movements of the French were ascertained, the whole army was ordered to advance upon Les Quatre Bras, and, early in the morning, the Prince of Orange reinforced the brigade which had been driven from thence, regained part of the ground, and commanded the communication with Blücher, who was posted on the heights between Brie and Sombref, awaiting the attack of the French, although the fourth corps under Bülow had not joined.

Except the corps of Ney, who was at Frasne, opposed to the British at Les Quatre Bras, and of Grouchy, who was in the rear of Fleurus, Buonaparte attacked the Prussians with his whole force, bringing up not less than 110,000 men against 80,000. About three in the afternoon he carried the village of St. Amand, after a vigorous resistance; and his next efforts were directed against Ligny, where the contest was maintained, with the utmost obstinacy, for five hours. About 200 cannon from both sides were directed against this unfortunate village; and at length it took fire in many places at once. Sometimes the battle extended along the whole line. About five the Prussians, led by Blücher in person, recovered St. Amand, and regained the heights; and, at this moment they might have profited greatly by their advantage if Bülow had arrived; but either the march of this corps had been miscalculated, or the nature and state of the roads had not been taken into the account. From the Duke of Wellington he could receive no

assistance; for as many of his troops as had come up were themselves perilously engaged with superior numbers. As evening advanced the situation of the Prussians became more hopeless; there were no tidings of Bulow; the British division could with difficulty maintain its own position at *Les Quatre Bras*; and Blucher was at length obliged to retire upon *Pilly*, leaving behind him 16 pieces of cannon, and a great number of killed and wounded. The retreat, however, was effected with such order that the French did not think it prudent to pursue him, and he formed again within a quarter of a league from the field of battle. The gallant marshal, in one of the charges of cavalry, nearly closed his long and illustrious life, his horse having fallen, mortally wounded; and himself being rode over by the French cuirassiers, who were repulsed and pursued by the Prussian cavalry before he was discovered and remounted.

Early in the afternoon of the same day, the 16th, Marshal Ney, after skirmishing for a considerable time, commenced his grand attack on the British, at *Les Quatre Bras*, with about 40,000 men; and the position was maintained with the most signal intrepidity, by the Prince of Orange, the Duke of Brunswick, and Sir Thomas Picton, who completely defeated every attempt to get possession of it. In this action, which was most obstinately contested, the French were not only superior in numbers, but were comparatively fresh, the allies having been marching from the preceding midnight. In pursuing a French division, which was repulsed early in the engagement, some British troops exposed themselves unawares to a body of cuirassiers, who, taking advantage of an inequality of ground, on which corn was growing as

high as the shoulders of the tallest man, were posted in ambush; and the gallant 42d regiment of Highlanders, in particular, suffered most severely. About three o'clock the Duke of Wellington came on the field with the British guards. At this period the French had dispossessed the Belgian sharpshooters from the Bois de Bossu, which enfiladed the British position. General Maitland, with the guards, was instantly ordered to recover this wood, and the service was speedily effected. In this obstinate conflict the British lost many excellent officers; and had particularly to deplore their gallant ally, the Duke of Brunswick, who was so severely wounded by a musket ball that he expired in a few minutes.

Marshal Blucher, who found himself so much weakened by the battle of Ligny as to be under the necessity of continuing his retreat, concentrated his army near Wavre, about six leagues to the rear of his former position, and considerably farther disjoined from the line of the Duke of Wellington's operations. His march was followed by Grouchy, whilst Buonaparte, with the rest of his army, made a movement to the left, to unite himself with Ney, and attack the English at Quatre Bras. Blucher's movement obliged the Duke of Wellington to retire upon Genappe, and thence upon Waterloo. The retreat began towards noon on the 17th, and was well covered by the cavalry and horse artillery. A large body of French cavalry, headed by lancers, followed with some boldness, especially at Genappe, where the little river which runs through the town is crossed by a narrow bridge; but the pursuit was not vigorous, and between five and six in the afternoon the whole army reached the appointed ground.

The position which the Duke of Wellington occu-

pied was in front of the village and farm of Mont St. Jean, about a mile and a half in advance of the little town of Waterloo. The rain, which was heavy throughout the night, began to abate about nine in the morning, when Buonaparte, whose head-quarters were then at Planchenois, a farm some little distance in the rear of the French line, and about fifteen miles from Brussels, put his army in motion. His position was on a ridge immediately opposite to that of the British, at a distance varying from 1000 to 12 or 1300 yards; the right on the heights in front of Planchenois; the centre at a little country tavern and farm, famous from that day in history for its appropriate name of La Belle Alliance; the left leaning on the road to Brussels from Nivelles. The cuirassiers were in reserve behind, and the imperial guards upon the heights. Grouchy and Vandamme had been detached toward Wavre against the Prussians; and the sixth corps, under Count Lobau, with a body of cavalry, was in the rear of the right, ready to oppose a Prussian corps, "which," says an official French account, "appeared to have escaped Marshal Grouchy, and to threaten to fall upon our right flank." Thinking to bear down the British army by dint of numbers, he brought against their force, comprising altogether about 75,000, of which the British did not exceed 33,000, three corps of infantry, and almost all his cavalry, amounting, with artillery, to 110,000 men, 40,000 more being in reserve, or awaiting the Prussians on the right.

The two points of the greatest importance in the British position were the farm of Hougomont, with its wood and garden in front of the right, and that of La Haye Sainte, in front of the left; and, about ten o'clock, Soult and Ney attacked the former with

their usual impetuosity. This point the Duke of Wellington had strengthened as much as possible during the night; and so severe was the contest, that, within half an hour, 1500 men were slain in an orchard not exceeding four acres in extent. Great efforts were made by the assailants, who surrounded the house on three sides, set it on fire with shells, and burnt a great part of it to the ground; but it was defended with the utmost gallantry to the last. The assault upon Hougoumont was accompanied by a heavy fire from more than 200 pieces of artillery upon the whole British line; and, under cover of this fire, repeated attacks had been made, one of which was so serious, and made with such numbers, that it required all the skill of the British commander to post his troops, and all the courage and discipline of his soldiers to withstand the assailants. In this attack Sir Thomas Picton was mortally wounded, by a musket ball in the head, and Sir William Ponsonby was slain by the Polish lancers.

On the left of the centre the enemy obtained a temporary success. Some light troops of the German legion had been stationed in the farm of La Haye Sainte; the French succeeded in occupying the communication between them and the army; and, when all the ammunition of the besieged was expended, they carried the farm-house, and bayoneted the Hanoverians stationed to defend it. From this position they were never driven, till the grand advance of the British in the evening. The battle continued with the most desperate intrepidity on both sides, Buonaparte continually bringing forward his troops in considerable masses, which the British and their allies repulsed. The Duke of Wellington was every where, and never were his exertions more needful; some-

times he was rallying broken infantry, and sometimes placing himself within the squares. No man, indeed, ever had more confidence in his troops, and no troops ever more amply returned the confidence which they so well deserved. On this day both men and leaders were put to the proof: none of their former fields of glory, many as they had seen together, had been so stubbornly contested, or so dearly won. The carnage, owing partly to the confined extent of the ground, and the consequent intermixture of the contending forces, was such as the British army had never before experienced; but it would have been still greater had not the ground been soaked with rain, in consequence of which the balls seldom rose after they touched it, and the shells frequently buried themselves in the mud.

Anxious to overpower the English before the Prussians could arrive in any force, Buonaparte, about seven in the evening, made a last and desperate effort to force the left of the British centre near La Haye Sainte. The attack was led by Marshal Ney, with eagerness and precipitancy; General Friant fell by his side, and his own horse was killed. He was opposed by the Duke of Wellington in person, with such resolution that the assailing columns turned and fled in disorder. At this time, when the thickening cannonade on the French right, and the appearance of troops emerging from the woods, announced that the Prussians were coming up in full force, the British army was ordered to advance, the centre being formed in line, and the battalions on the flanks in squares, for their security. The Duke of Wellington himself led them on, and in every point the success was most decisive. The enemy, exhausted by their own repeated and unsuccessful attacks, scarcely waited the charge; their first line was thrown back upon, and

mingled with the second; all order was abandoned; the panic spread rapidly; and the whole army, pressed by the British in front, and by the Prussians on the right and in the rear, fled in irretrievable confusion.

Blücher, on proceeding to join the Duke of Wellington, left one division of his army at Wavre, under General Thielman, to oppose Marshal Grouchy, before whom he gradually fell back; and, whilst Buonaparte was vainly encouraging his army with the hope of being succoured by the arrival of the marshal, that officer, who appears not to have been aware of the movements on his left, and that the fate of his master would be decided at Waterloo, was advancing on the road to Brussels, exulting in his unprofitable success. It was about half past seven, at which time it was evident that Buonaparte's attack upon the British had failed, that the Duke of Wellington took that great and decisive step which crowned his glory and saved Europe. The Prussians made their attack shortly after, under the most favourable circumstances; and, even if the British army had not repulsed the enemy, Blücher's movement would have been decisive. If the French had succeeded in their efforts against the Duke of Wellington, it would have prevented them from profiting by the success; but, being made at the critical moment of their defeat, it rendered the victory complete. A total rout cannot be more fully acknowledged than in Buonaparte's own account. "A complete panic," he says, "spread through the whole field of battle; the men threw themselves in the greatest disorder on the line of communication; soldiers, cannoniers, caissons, all pressed to this point; the old guard, which was in reserve, was infected, and was itself hurried along. In an instant the whole army was nothing but a mass of confusion; all the soldiers

of small arms were mixed pell mell, and it was utterly impossible to rally a single corps. The enemy, who perceived this astonishing confusion, immediately attacked with their cavalry, and increased the disorder; and such was the confusion, owing to night coming on, that it was impossible to rally the troops and point out to them their error."

Buonaparte's station during the battle had been upon the Charleroi road, at the hamlet of *La Belle Alliance*; near which post, by a singular coincidence, when night had closed in, and the rout of the enemy was complete, Blucher and Wellington met in the pursuit, and exchanged congratulations. As the British and Prussians were now on the same road, and the former, having been twelve hours in action, were greatly fatigued, the duke readily relinquished the charge of pursuit to his gallant colleague, who declared that he would continue it throughout the night, and gave orders to send the last man and the last horse after the enemy. In this pursuit the Prussians took about 150 pieces of cannon, Buonaparte's travelling equipage, and the whole *materiel* and baggage of the army. An equal number of artillery had been also taken by the British. Such a battle could not be fought without great loss on both sides; and this victory was indeed achieved by a severe sacrifice. On the side of the victors the total of killed and wounded, exclusive of the Prussians, exceeded 13,000 men; among whom were 600 officers, including 11 generals. The loss of the French must have been tremendous: it is supposed that they left at least 20,000 men dead on the field; and, being pursued after the battle by a fresh and inveterate enemy, their numbers were so greatly thinned, by slaughter and desertion, that of the 150,000 men with whom Buonaparte commenced

this campaign of four days, not a third part remained in arms, though the prisoners did not exceed 7000.

The feeling produced in England by this battle, which led to more important consequences than have resulted from any in modern times, will never be forgotten. Though accustomed to victory, upon the land as well as upon the seas, the glory of all seemed eclipsed by that of Waterloo. The first consideration was, how to express a due sense of this great exploit—how to manifest a nation's gratitude to the army and its leader. There remained no fresh distinctions to confer on the Duke of Wellington; but 200,000*l.* were added to the former grant, that a magnificent palace might commemorate the event. Every regiment which had been present was permitted from thenceforth to bear the word *Waterloo* upon its colours; all the privates were to be distinguished in the muster-rolls and pay-lists of their respective corps as Waterloo men, and every subaltern officer and private allowed to reckon that day's work as two years' service in the account of his time for increase of pay, or for a pension when discharged. A benefit not less important was extended, on this occasion, to the whole army, by a regulation enacting, that henceforward the pensions granted for wounds should rise with the rank to which the officer attained, so that he who was maimed when an ensign should, when he became a general, receive a general's pension for the injury which he had endured.

The allied armies moved upon Paris, where the proceedings of the government evinced how little ability there was to resist their progress. Buonaparte, who had twice returned to that capital alone after leading armies to destruction, again hastened thither, and informed his chamber of peers that he had come

to Paris to consult on the means of restoring the *materiel* of the army, and with the chambers on the legislative measures which circumstances required. The two chambers hastily assembled, and, after some discussion, declared their sittings permanent, and that any attempt to dissolve them was a crime of high treason. The ensuing debates were full of tumult; one speaker ventured to call for the abdication of the emperor; several voices seconded the motion; and in this critical juncture his adherents suggested various projects, even proposing that he should dissolve the mutinous assembly with an armed force, and assume the dictatorship. On the morning of the 22d the chamber of representatives assembled to receive his act of abdication, a measure considered indispensably necessary for the salvation of the country. A long interval of feverish impatience elapsed. At length the minister of police appeared with a declaration, in which Buonaparte announced that his political life was terminated, and proclaimed his son Emperor of the French, by the title of Napoleon the Second. An address of thanks for the sacrifice he had made was presented by the president, Lanjuinais, at the head of a deputation; and the two chambers, eluding any express recognition of the young Napoleon, proceeded to nominate a provisional government, of which the members were Carnot, Fouché, Caulincourt, Grenier, and Quinette.

The Duke of Wellington remained at Waterloo till the 19th of June, to rest his troops after so severe an action; on the 20th he marched to Malplaquet, and crossed the French boundary, having issued a general order, apprising the soldiers that, in marching through the dominions of an ally, they were to observe the strictest discipline. This order was so well obeyed,

that the inhabitants acknowledged that the British paid more respect to public and private property than had even marked the conduct of their own troops. Cambray surrendered on the 24th; the strong fortress of Peronne was reduced on the 26th; on the 28th the duke was at St. Just; and on the 29th and 30th he passed the Oise. Blucher, after carrying Avesnes by escalade, marched upon Laon, under the walls of which Soult, with about 4000 stragglers, was joined by 20,000 men, under Grouchy and Vandamme, who had with difficulty and loss effected their retreat from Wavre. At Villars Coteret a contest between these forces took place, which terminated favourably to the Prussians, who immediately advanced to the neighbourhood of Paris; and having passed the Seine by a combined movement, the two generals completely invested the city on its defenceless side. In the mean time, commissioners appointed by the provisional government had repaired to the camp of Prince Blucher, and requested a suspension of arms while they proceeded to the head-quarters of the allies with overtures for peace; but he would only listen to unconditional submission, and the possession of Paris; he, however, granted them passports to proceed to Haguenau, where the allied sovereigns, who were advancing with a large army, held their head-quarters. After a long, but unsatisfactory conference, they returned to Paris, and found the Duke of Wellington and Prince Blucher ready to enter the capital, in pursuance of a convention concluded in their absence. The provisional government had invited the marshals and generals to a council of war, at which it was decided that all resistance must be fruitless; and Fouché and Caulincourt proposed that the city should be surrendered to Louis the Eighteenth, arguing

that it would conciliate a family under whose power it was evident they must return. It was, however, finally determined to offer a capitulation as a mere military transaction, without reference to any political question. The convention was concluded on the 24 of July, and its principal terms were, that the French army should, on the following day, commence its march to take up a position behind the Loire, and completely evacuate Paris in three days; that all the fortified posts and the barriers should be given up; that public property, with the exception of that relating to war, should be respected; that private persons and property should be equally respected; and that all individuals in the capital should continue to enjoy their rights and liberties, without being disturbed or called to account, either as to situations held by them, or as to their conduct or political opinions.

The 8th of July exhibited in a revolting point of view the fickle and servile nature of the Parisians! When the arrival of Louis the Eighteenth on the road to the capital was announced, multitudes who, a few short weeks before, had rent the air with plaudits of Buonaparte and execrations against the Bourbons, in the *Champ de Mars*, went out to meet him; on entering the suburbs he was greeted with enthusiasm by the multitude; and the royal carriage was attended by the same municipal body which had lately sanctioned all the plans and all the measures of his adversary.

Buonaparte's abdication was accompanied by a kind of farewell proclamation to the army, after which he occupied himself in preparing for a voyage to America; and on the 2d of July, he arrived at Rochefort, escorted by General Beker, whose orders were to see

him speedily embarked on board a small squadron which the provisional government had assigned for his conveyance. On the 8th he went on board a small French frigate; but the port was so closely blockaded by English vessels that escape was impossible, and he sent a flag of truce to the commodore of the British squadron, requesting permission to pass, which was refused. At length, on the 15th, after endeavouring to make terms with Captain Maitland of the *Bellerophon*, who could only reply that he had no authority to enter into any kind of treaty, he surrendered at discretion, and was conveyed to England in that vessel, which arrived in Torbay on the 24th, when he transmitted a letter to the Prince-regent, signed "Napoleon," in these terms:—"Exposed to the factions which divide my country, and to the enmity of the great powers of Europe, I have terminated my political career; and I come, like Themistocles, to throw myself upon the hospitality of the British nation. I place myself under the safeguard of their laws, and claim the protection of your royal highness, the most powerful, the most constant, the most generous, of my enemies."

Buoyed up by the expectation of obtaining an asylum in England, he was cheerful and affable, and soon ingratiated himself with every person on board; but in England Buonaparte could not be permitted to reside with comfort to himself, or security to Europe; nor could he have been suffered to emigrate to any neutral country, however distant, where intercourse with his adherents would be practicable. It was therefore determined that the island of St. Helena should be the place of his residence. Distant 1200 miles from the nearest continent, containing but one harbour within its circumference, strong by

nature, impregnable by art, commanding from its declivities a view of the ocean on every side for more than sixty miles, this island, from its solitude and security, seemed created for the reception of some illustrious exile. When informed that he would be conveyed to St. Helena, with four of his friends, to be chosen by himself, and twelve domestics, he received the intimation without surprise, but protested against the measure with the utmost energy, alleging; that he had been forced to quit the isle of Elba by the breach of the treaty made with him by the sovereigns of Europe; that he had endeavoured to avoid hostilities, but had been forced to commence them by the allies themselves; and that it was not consistent with the principles of the British constitution to doom him to perpetual banishment without accusation and without trial. He was removed on board the *Northumberland*, and the officers who surrounded him were instructed to address him by no higher title than that of General. Count Bertrand, the Countess, and their children, Count and Countess Montholon, Count Las Cases, and General Gougand, with nine men and three women servants, remained with Buonaparte, and the rest were sent on board the *Eurotas* frigate. Buonaparte's surgeon alone, of all his attendants, refused to accompany him, and his place was supplied by the surgeon of the *Bellerophon*. The *Northumberland* sailed on the 7th of August, and arrived at St. Helena in the middle of October. Thus terminated the career of this spoiled child of fortune, who, had he known any bounds to his inordinate ambition, might have been seated in security on the throne of France, with far greater power than any of her monarchs had ever enjoyed.

Connected, in some measure, with the movements

of Buonaparte, appears to have been the advance of Murat against Austria. Murat, however, was still more unfortunate than his master. He was defeated in his object of revolutionising Italy; he failed in his attempt to cut his way through the Austrians, at Tolentino, on the 3d of May; and he arrived at his capital just in time to escape from it in disguise. His army capitulated on the 21st of May, when the Austrians entered the city, and Ferdinand the Fourth of Sicily was restored to the throne. Murat effected his escape to Toulon, where he remained some time in disguise; thence he proceeded to Corsica, and assembled about 400 followers, at the head of which, mimicking, as it were, his master, he embarked for the Neapolitan coast; but his vessels were dispersed in a storm, and, landing with only 30 followers on the 8th of October, he failed in exciting an insurrection in his favour, and was arrested, tried, and condemned to be shot. The sentence was put in execution on the 15th; and his behaviour, on this occasion, was worthy of a man who had been elevated to an exalted station for which he possessed few qualities except personal bravery.

The British Parliament reassembled on the 9th of February, when the state of the corn-laws again occupied the attention of the House of Commons. On the 17th nine resolutions were moved in a committee, which, after allowing the free warehousing of grain for re-exportation, or to be taken for home consumption when the price should permit, fixed the average at 80s. per quarter for wheat, and proportionally for other corn; that is to say, when British corn should not be below that price, foreign might be admitted duty free. A bill framed on the resolutions was introduced by Mr. Robinson on the 1st of March,

and, after encountering a strong opposition in both Houses from the manufacturing and commercial interests, was passed on the 20th by the Lords. The apprehension of dearth, as the immediate consequence of this law, occasioned riots, which were not quelled without military aid. Experience, however, has shown that the alarm was groundless, the price having fallen so far below the standard as to leave the agricultural part of the community an inadequate remuneration, after paying that increase of rents and taxes which had taken place during the war.

An important act was introduced by the lord-chancellor for extending the trial by jury in civil causes to Scotland. Its provisions differed in several particulars from those of the English law, and the granting such a trial was in each case optional with the judges; but his lordship hoped that at no distant period a further extension of the principle would be concurred in, the present measure being favourably received in Scotland.

A bill was introduced by the chancellor of the exchequer, and passed, for continuing the restriction of cash payments by the Bank of England till the 5th of July, 1816, a motion for inquiry having been previously negatived.

On the 22d of May a message was delivered to both Houses from the Prince-regent, occasioned by the landing of Buonaparte in France, which was followed by documents relative to the engagements concluded with the allies. When the subsidies came under the consideration of the House of Commons, Lord Castlereagh stated that Austria, Russia, and Prussia, were each prepared to contribute to the common cause a larger force than they had engaged for, and that several of the inferior powers were also to

furnish very considerable contingents. The sense of both Houses was very strongly expressed; not only by the usual supporters of ministers, but by several opposition members, in favour of resistance to Buonaparte, and a grant of five millions, to make good the engagements with Austria, Russia, and Prussia, was carried by a majority of 160 votes to 17.

The property, or income tax, the inquisitorial nature of which had rendered it highly unpopular, was doomed to expire in April; but, as suspicions were entertained that it was in the contemplation of ministers to continue it another year, meetings against it were convened all over the country, and a schedule of new and additional taxes, as a partial supply for the deficiency to be occasioned by its extinction, was actually made out, when, suddenly, the irruption of the exile of Elba rendered its revival, which alone produced the enormous sum of 14,000,000*l. per annum*, a measure of imperative necessity. The supplies for the year, exclusive of the Irish proportion of 9,760,814*l.* were stated at 79,968,112*l.*; and, in aid of this enormous demand, a vote of credit for 6,000,000*l.* and two loans for 45,000,000*l.* were resorted to.

A message from the Prince-regent, on the 27th of June, announced the marriage of the Duke of Cumberland with the widow of the Prince of Salms, and a motion was made in the House of Commons for an addition to the duke's income; but as it appeared that the Queen had expressed strong objections to the union, the grant was negatived by 126 against 125. The escape of Lord Cochrane from the King's Bench prison, his recapture, and subsequent liberation, would scarcely be worth noticing, were it not for the remarkable circumstance that, on this occasion, his single voice determined the question, and relieved the Speaker from

the unpleasantness of being called upon to give a casting vote upon a question of considerable delicacy.

Parliament was prorogued, on the 11th of July, by a speech from the throne, in which the Prince-regent, after recapitulating the events which had led to so glorious a termination of the war, trusted that there would be no relaxation in the exertions necessary to establish the permanent peace and security of Europe.

Though Louis the Eighteenth returned to his capital on the 8th of July, it was not until the 7th of October that the two French chambers, or grand council of the nation, corresponding with the British Parliament, were assembled. A treaty or convention with the allies was then formally announced, but it did not receive the final signatures of the contracting powers until the 20th of November. From the several conventions of which the grand treaty was composed, it appeared that the restoration of peace had been effected upon the principle of securing to the allies indemnities for the past, and guarantees for the future; the indemnities to be partly territorial, and partly pecuniary. Seven fortresses were to be occupied by 150,000 of the allied troops, at the expense of France, for a period not exceeding five years; and the pecuniary indemnity was settled at 200,000,000 francs. Among other concessions, the Ionian islands were declared independent, under the protection of England. The respective conventions may be considered as having been sealed and cemented by the treaty of alliance which was at the same time entered into by Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, stipulating the maintenance of the grand treaty in all its vigour, and engaging to employ their united forces on any future occasion, should the same revolutionary principles which supported the last criminal usurpa-

tion, again, under other forms, disturb France, and menace the repose of other states." The French government, and the nation at large, could not but feel the severity of the terms imposed by the allies: a consciousness, however, of their justness, and of the necessity of submission, induced them to meet with firmness that which it would have been the height of folly to resist. During the occupation of Paris, the various states which had suffered from the depredations of Buonaparte lost no time in recovering the works of art of which he had deprived them; and a great number of valuable paintings and national monuments, the possession of which rendered Paris the depository of the most celebrated productions in Europe, were restored to their original owners.

On the re-establishment of the kingly government in France, measures were taken for the punishment of those who had been most actively engaged in the late rebellion; and although only a few atoned for their offences with their lives, the celebrated Marshal Ney, one of the most distinguished of Buonaparte's soldiers, was among the number.

An act of confederation was signed at Vienna on the 8th. of June, by which the management of the general affairs of the German states was confided to a diet, composed of representatives of all the princes and free cities of the empire; and as they severally pledged themselves not to make war upon each other, on any pretext, but to submit all differences to the decision of the diet, the future tranquility of Germany is secured so long as the confederacy shall act up to its declared principles. In the final settlement of Europe by Congress, Prussia received some important territorial accessions, chiefly from Saxony, whose king, being the last of Buonaparte's adherents, was com-

pelled to submit to the loss of Thuringia, Upper and Lower Lusatia, and Henneberg. This acquisition, in addition to Swedish Pomerania, and the recovery of her Polish provinces, restored Prussia to a high rank among the powers of the Continent.

In the East Indies some disputes between the British government and the state of Nepal, respecting boundaries, broke out into hostility; and a force of 30,000 men was ordered by the Governor-general, Lord Moira, to penetrate that mountainous and intricate country. Several gallant but unsuccessful attempts were made on the strong fort of Khatmandu, in one of which General Gillespie, the commander, was slain; the fort was at length, however, evacuated by its garrison; but a series of warlike operations was continued for several months, with great bravery and skill on both sides, and with various success. After a campaign of unusual difficulty, the result was, that the whole country from Khatmandu to the river Sutledge was ceded to the English company.

About this period the whole island of Ceylon came under the British dominion, the King of Candy, who possessed the interior, having driven the inhabitants, by a series of atrocities, to throw off his yoke. Early in the year General Brownrigg, the governor of the British possessions on the coast, issued a proclamation declaring that he made war on the tyrant alone, and promising protection to his oppressed subjects. An adequate force then penetrated to the capital, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants; the king was delivered up, without the loss of a single man; and a treaty was concluded, by which the British authority was established in the whole island, the rights and immunities of the chiefs were secured, the religion of Boodh was established, torture and muti-

lation were abolished, and no sentence of death was to be executed without a warrant from the British governor. Thus was this fine and fruitful island, without bloodshed, and by the general consent of its inhabitants, added to "Britain's wide domain."

Among the domestic events of the year the sudden and distressing close of Mr. Whitbread's life, by his own hands, is the only prominent feature. He was a constant speaker on almost every subject that came before the House of Commons; and although not in the possession of office, he occupied a place in the British Parliament, as the active investigator of abuses, the ready advocate of the oppressed, and the liberal friend of all mankind, which made his loss a matter of deep and general regret.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

PARLIAMENT assembled on the 1st of February, 1816, when, in consequence of the indisposition of the Prince-regent, the speech was read by the lord-chancellor. His Royal Highness congratulated the two Houses upon the splendid and decisive successes obtained by his Majesty's arms, and those of his allies, by which he trusted that the lasting repose and security of Europe had been obtained; he lamented the heavy pressure upon the country which the late extraordinary exertions could not have failed to produce; but he assured them that they might rely on every disposition on his part to concur in such measures of economy as might be found consistent with the security of the country, and with that station which it occupied in Europe. In the House of Lords the address was agreed

to unanimously; and in the Commons an amendment, moved by Mr. Brand, censuring ministers for the length of the late prorogation, which had caused a delay in producing important treaties, and in revising our civil and military establishments, was negatived by 90 against 23.

On the 9th of February Mr. Brougham moved for a copy of a treaty concluded at Paris, on the 26th of September, between the sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, and which had received the name of the Holy Alliance. By this singular document, which was couched in the most devout and solemn language, and consisted of three articles, the three potentates, members of different Christian churches, declared their resolution, both in their domestic administration and foreign relations, to take for their guide the precepts of the holy religion taught by our Saviour. They bound themselves in a fraternity of mutual assistance, regarding themselves as delegated by Providence to govern three branches of one and the same Christian nation, of which the Divine Being was the sole real sovereign; and they declared that all such powers as should solemnly avow the sacred principles which had actuated them would be received with ardour into this "holy alliance." Mr. Brougham observed, that there was something so singular in the language of the treaty, as to warrant no little jealousy. He could not think that it referred to objects merely spiritual: the partition of Poland had been prefaced by language very similar to that now used; and the proclamation of the Empress Catharine, which wound up that fatal tragedy, was couched in almost the same words. Lord Castlereagh vindicated the motives of the Emperor of Russia, and stated that the Prince-regent, whose accession to this alliance had been solicited, had ex-

pressed his satisfaction in its tendency. He opposed the production of the document itself, on the ground that it was contrary to the practice of Parliament to call for copies of treaties to which this country was no party.

From an abstract of the net produce of the revenue, in the years ending the 5th of January, 1815, and the 5th of January, 1816, it appeared that, in the former, it amounted to 65,429,981*l.*; and, in the latter, to 66,443,802*l.* Notwithstanding this enormous produce, the chancellor of the exchequer acknowledged, on the very first day of the session, that it was his intention to propose a reduced income-tax of 5*l.* per cent., there being no mode of raising the necessary supplies less oppressive or so economical. This intention was, however, frustrated by the persevering opposition of the people to this attempted breach of public faith. On the 5th of March, the subject having previously undergone much discussion, Mr. Vansittart, with the view of gaining over the poorer classes, announced, amongst his proposed modifications, that incomes of less than 150*l.* and farms of less rent than 150*l.* were to be exempt from the operation of the tax; and that, upon farms of higher rent, the assessment was to be upon one-third, instead of three-fourths of the rent. On the reduced scale, Mr. Vansittart, in the first instance, estimated the tax to produce 6,000,000*l.* annually; it had been proved, however, that, according to the original plan, more than half of the tax had been paid by incomes of 150*l.* a year, and under. Estimating the net produce of the tax at ten per cent. at 12,000,000*l.*, at five per cent. it would indeed be 6,000,000*l.*; but, by taking away, at one stroke, half of the sources of production—incomes of 150*l.* a year and under—the produce of the remaining half could be only 3,000,000*l.*, and by the reduction of farm-rents, &c. the actual

produce would probably not have been more than 2,000,000*l.* On the final discussion of the subject, on the 18th of March, the motion for a continuance of the income-tax was negatived by 238 against 201. This important defeat rendering recourse to a loan unavoidable, the war tax on malt, which had been estimated to produce 2,000,000*l. per annum*, was also voluntarily relinquished by ministers, as the abandonment of the tax would be a relief to the agricultural interest, and the addition of that sum to the amount which it had become necessary to borrow would be of little importance. In bringing forward the budget, on the 27th of May, the chancellor of the exchequer announced the highly gratifying fact, that the surplus of the preceding year's grants in hand amounted to 5,068,755*l.* In their favourite object of maintaining a very large standing army ministers were successful; the situation of the Continent rendering it in some measure necessary.

Among the additional ways and means the sum of 3,000,000*l.* was advanced by the Bank, at three *per cent.* interest, on condition of being permitted to increase their capital by one-fourth; and on the 14th of March Mr. Grenfell moved for a select committee to inquire into the advantages gained by that corporation, from the public balances, since 1806, and observed that, in consideration of the extravagant profits made by the company, the sum of six millions, which had been borrowed from them, ought to have been obtained without any interest: his motion, however, was negatived. The restriction on cash-payments was subsequently extended until July, 1818; the English and Irish exchequers were consolidated; and a bill was passed for a new silver coinage, in which the denomination of the coin was raised by a small seig-

norage; 66 instead of 62 shillings being allowed to the pound Troy.

A message from the Prince-regent to both Houses of Parliament, on the 14th of March, announced the marriage contract of his daughter, the Princess Charlotte Augusta, with his Serene Highness the Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg; and, on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, an annual sum of 60,000*l.* was voted to the illustrious pair during their joint lives; of which 10,000*l.* was to form a sort of privy-purse for her Royal Highness. If the prince should die first, the whole sum was to be continued to her Royal Highness; if he should be the survivor, the sum of 50,000*l.* was to be continued to him: the sum of 60,000*l.* was also granted by way of outfit. The marriage ceremony was performed on the 2d of May, at the Queen's Palace, in the presence of the royal family; and the event called forth the sincere congratulations of the nation. In July another royal marriage took place, between the Princess Mary, fourth daughter of his Majesty, and her cousin, the Duke of Gloucester. Their establishments were framed on a scale which rendered an application to the public purse unnecessary.

A motion by Mr. Tierney, for abolishing the office of secretary of state, for the department of war and colonies, was lost by a majority of 82. A proposition that the expenditure of the civil list should not exceed the revenues, and that the several remaining charges should in future be made a charge upon the consolidated fund, or that the excess of such expenditure should be annually submitted to Parliament, was also rejected by a majority of 114. The state of Ireland was brought under discussion in April, by Sir John Newport, who moved for documents to explain the

extent and nature of those evils which rendered it necessary to maintain there, during peace, an army of 25,000 men. This motion was superseded by an amendment, proposed by Mr. Peel, who defended the measures pursued by government, and asserted that the disturbances in that country seemed to be the effect of a general confederacy in crime—a systematic opposition to all laws. The debates on the Catholic question were attended with the same results as on former occasions; but an expectation was entertained that they would be renewed in the ensuing session with greater success. A bill relative to the registry and regulation of slaves, which had been introduced by Mr. Wilberforce towards the close of the last session, became the subject of warm debates, in consequence of a calamitous insurrection which had taken place at Barbadoes. A petition from the merchants of Bristol deprecated the measure, as disclosing a spirit of interference with the local legislation of the colonies; and, on the suggestion of Lord Castlereagh, Mr. Wilberforce postponed his intended motion, and moved for papers on the subject. Mr. Palmer, who argued that the insurrection arose from expectations, among the slaves, of entire emancipation, fostered by the proposed registry bill, moved an amendment, which was carried, recommending the colonial authorities to promote the moral and religious improvement, as well as the comfort and happiness, of the negroes.

Parliament was prorogued on the 2d of July, when the Prince-regent expressed his deep regret at the distresses sustained by many classes of his Majesty's subjects, which he hoped would be found to have arisen from causes of a temporary nature.

The period had now arrived at which the consoc-

quences of so long and expensive a war were to be more severely felt than they had been during its continuance. The system of borrowing, which had been so profusely resorted to, could no longer be continued, and the future expenses of the government, with the enormous sum necessary for defraying the interest of the national debt, must now be raised within the year; whilst those commercial advantages which the ascendancy of our navy had been able to secure could no longer be retained. It was therefore soon discovered that the mischiefs of such a war could not be instantly repaired by a return to peace, and the pressure of agricultural and commercial distress, in the early part of the present year, was very severely felt. Distress naturally engenders discontent; and at such seasons mischievous characters are too frequently ready to start forward to avail themselves of the irritated feelings of the people. In the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and various other parts of the kingdom, tumults of a very serious nature took place; nightly assemblages were held; houses, barns, and rick-yards were set on fire; and, in the Isle of Ely, a kind of organised insurrection burst forth, in which alarming features of depravity were exhibited, and which was not suppressed without considerable difficulty. Between 70 and 80 rioters were lodged in Ely gaol, who were tried by a special commission, when 24 were found guilty, of whom five suffered the final execution of the law.

Later in the year, the inferior produce of the harvest, the consequent advance in the price of provisions, and the continued depression of trade and commerce, operated most severely upon the poorer classes throughout the kingdom. Numerous meetings were holden to consider the means of alleviating the general dis-

tress, and large subscriptions were raised; but at several of the assemblies ostensibly convened for the most benevolent purposes, persons of seditious principles came forward to inflame the minds of the people, by asserting that the abolition of places and pensions, and a reform in Parliament, would prove a remedy for every evil. Of the meetings of this nature, those which were holden in Spa Fields, near London, are the most entitled to notice. On the 15th of November many thousand artisans and others, assembled for the alleged purpose of petitioning for relief under their distress, were addressed by Mr. Hunt in a long and violent harangue, and it was determined that a petition to the Prince-regent should be presented by him, accompanied by Sir Francis Burdett; but the latter did not choose to appear in the business, and Mr. Hunt was informed that it could only be presented at a levee, or through the medium of the home secretary. On the 2d of December another meeting was convened to receive the answer to the petition, when an alarming breach of the peace took place. A young man, named Watson, after uttering an inflammatory harangue, seized a flag from one of the by-standers, and, heading a party of the populace, led them into the city, and attempted to plunder the shop of a gunsmith on Snow-hill. He fired a pistol at a gentleman named Platt, who was remonstrating with him, and for this offence he was apprehended, but in the confusion that ensued he escaped; and the riot, which might have produced incalculable mischief, was checked by the spirited conduct of the magistrates, and entirely quelled by the appearance of a military force. During this disturbance the principal part of the assemblage remained in Spa Fields, where another petition was determined upon, and another meeting appointed.

For a series of years the pirates on the coast of Barbary had committed great depredations on almost every civilized state; and so successful had been their career, that they at length ventured to attack the English flag. Sir Thomas Maitland, the Governor of Malta, proceeded, in consequence, to Tripoli, the government of which acceded to all that he proposed; and at Tunis every thing was amicably settled by negotiation. These arrangements, however, proving ineffectual, Admiral Lord Exmouth, with a portion of the Mediterranean fleet, proceeded in the early part of the present year, first to Tunis, and then to Tripoli. At both these places the deys appeared disposed to accede to any terms; and his lordship proposed a treaty, for ever prohibiting the making of Christian slaves, and that such prisoners as might be taken in war should be treated according to the practice of civilized Europe. These stipulations were readily agreed to, treaties were signed, and the fleet returned to Algiers, where Lord Exmouth proposed to the dey a similar treaty, against which, however, he made a firm and resolute stand, representing that it was impossible entirely to abolish the system that had so long subsisted; that it was the commerce of the country; and that a change which would be so detrimental to the interests of every Turk and Moor, it would require considerable time to bring their minds to submit to: Lord Exmouth therefore departed from the interview with a determination to commence hostilities; on which the dey ordered the British Consul, Mr. M'Donald, to be confined, and all the English vessels at Oran to be seized. Negotiations were, however, resumed, which ended in an agreement that three months should be allowed for obtaining the sanction of the Grand Seignior to the proposed treaty, and the Tagus

frigate was appointed to take the dey's ambassador to Constantinople. Scarcely, however, had Lord Exmouth reached England, when intelligence arrived of a new and horrible outrage; between 3 and 400 Corsican, Neapolitan, and Sicilian fishing-boats, employed in the coral fishery, near Tunis, having been attacked by an Algerine frigate, the fortress of Bona also firing upon them. At the same time a corps of cavalry from Bona charged them furiously, and the slaughter amongst these poor defenceless creatures was dreadful.

Finding it impracticable to bind the barbarians by treaties, it was at length resolved to take severe vengeance for their cruelty and perfidy; and Lord Exmouth accordingly sailed from Plymouth, on the 28th of July, in the Queen Charlotte, of 110 guns, with four other ships of the line, five frigates, and several sloops, bombs, &c. Having rendezvoused at Gibraltar, where he was joined by a Dutch squadron, his lordship proceeded on his voyage on the 14th of August. The Algerines, it appears, had, ever since the end of May, been preparing for the expected attack of our fleet, by removing every article of value from the town, which was well defended by about 1000 pieces of ordnance. Algiers, rising abruptly from the water's edge, to a great height, was surrounded by a high wall, the southern side of which was adorned with men's heads. The batteries were one above another, strongly constructed and fortified; and along a tongue of land, which defends the entrance into the inner part of the harbour, and also the approach to it, was a range of strong batteries, which our ships were obliged to pass, to take their station near the town, for the purpose of bombarding it. Lord Exmouth arrived on the 27th of August, previously to which he had dispatched the Prometheus

to endeavour to get away the consul; but he was already in confinement, and the dey rejected all applications for his release. Captain Dashwood, however, succeeded in bringing away his wife and daughter, disguised in midshipmen's uniform, leaving a boat to bring off their infant child, concealed in a basket; but it was discovered by its cries, and, in consequence, the party was seized, and confined as slaves. The dey, however, had the humanity to send the child to its mother the next morning. All proposals for conciliation having proved ineffectual, the fleet passed the batteries, and at three o'clock in the afternoon the firing commenced. The Queen Charlotte took her station off the extreme point of the tongue, by which she enfiladed the whole line of batteries along it; and so near was she, that every part of the mole, and what was called the marine, was visible from our quarter-deck. Both were crowded with spectators, and Lord Exmouth waved his hat to them to retire, and signified that he was about to begin hostilities; but they did not attend to his humane warning, and the consequence was, that our first broadside swept off from 500 to 1000 of them. The most advanced of the Algerine navy was a brig, to which the Queen Charlotte lashed herself; closer in with the shore, in the bosom of the harbour, were two frigates, and the rest of the Algerine vessels behind them. The fury and tremendous nature of the bombardment will never be forgotten. It continued, with little intermission, till nearly eleven; the Algerines fighting all the time with the utmost fury and desperation, but yet with great skill and effect. About ten it was deemed advisable to take a larger offing during the night. It was extremely dark; but the darkness was illuminated by a violent storm of lightning, with thunder, and by the

incessant fire of the batteries. Next morning the city and harbour exhibited a terrible scene of desolation, four large Algerine frigates, five corvettes, a great number of smaller vessels of all descriptions, the magazines, arsenals, and a large quantity of marine stores, being destroyed; whilst their loss in men was between 6 and 7000: the assailants had also to lament a loss in killed and wounded of more than 800. Lord Exmouth now repeated with effect the proposals which had before been rejected, and the result of this splendid achievement was, that the Dey agreed totally to abolish Christian slavery; to deliver up all the slaves in his dominions, to whatever nation they might belong; to return all the money that he had received for the redemption of slaves since the commencement of the year; and to make reparation and a public apology, to be dictated by the Captain of the Queen Charlotte, to the British consul, for the wrongs and indignities to which he had been subjected.

After the treaties had been negotiated, and the Dey had refunded 382,500 dollars to the governments of Naples and Sardinia, and had released 1083 Christian slaves, it came to the knowledge of Lord Exmouth that two Spaniards, the one a merchant, and the other the vice-consul of that nation, were still held in custody, on pretence that they were prisoners for debt. His lordship immediately insisted on their unconditional release, and prepared for the recommencement of hostilities; in consequence of which they were set at liberty, and not one Christian prisoner remained in Algiers. Our gallant squadron quitted on the 3d of September, with the satisfaction of having rescued the British character from the imputation of tamely permitting the atrocities which these piratical states had so long exercised against the weaker powers, and with

the proud consciousness that every man had done his duty. For his services on this occasion, Lord Exmouth, who was twice slightly wounded during the action, was raised from the dignity of baron to that of viscount; and a considerable promotion took place amongst the officers who had so nobly participated in the chastisement of an unprincipled tyrant.

In the East Indies the irritable state of the popular mind, on all subjects connected with their customs, occasioned some disturbances, which were not quelled without difficulty and bloodshed; and disputes with several of the native powers in the course of the year also occupied the British forces. The Pindarees, who had been gradually increasing in force, made an inroad into Guntour, laid waste that rich district, and committed many acts of wanton barbarity, occasioning a very severe loss to the government, whilst their movements were so skilfully conducted that they escaped with most of their booty. The refusal of the Rajah of Nepaul to ratify the treaty which had been concluded occasioned a severe contest between the British and this formidable enemy, which was terminated on the 4th of March by his acceding to the former terms, after being defeated in a decisive action, and losing an important fortress. For these successes the thanks of Parliament were voted to the governor-general and the army, and the Earl of Moira was created Marquis of Hastings.

That most desirable work, the arrangement of the statute law under distinct and proper heads—a work of stupendous labour—had been long studied by Lord Stanhope, a nobleman whose whole life had been devoted to the improvement of mathematical, legal, and political science; and who, during the last session, had moved for a committee to consider the best

means of accomplishing the object. Death, however, unfortunately deprived the country of his services before the developement of his plans; and it is much to be feared that a considerable time will elapse before any person equally qualified for the task will be induced to undertake it.

We must not quit the year 1816 without recording the death of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, the last of that great constellation of talent which adorned the latter part of the eighteenth century. As an orator he yielded not even to Mr. Pitt in flow of diction; whilst in force and acuteness he may be compared with Fox, and in splendour of imagination with Burke. His wit was brilliant and graceful; and in arguing or declaiming, in eulogy or invective, he disposed his thoughts with full and admirable effect. At the early age of 24 he wrote a comedy, which is admitted to be one of the best in the English language—*The School for Scandal*; and, had he employed his matchless endowments with ordinary judgment, nothing could have obstructed his progress to the highest point of fame: but, attached to convivial pleasures, crusted over with indolence, and depressed by fortune, mischievous habits seduced him from the House of Commons and from home, and obscured those transcendent powers which might have placed him in the foremost rank of statesmen. He was the steady advocate of public liberty; and, could he have been roused to more frequent exertion, would doubtless have enjoyed a very large share of popularity.

On the 28th, of January, 1817, Parliament was opened by the Prince-regent in person, when the chief topics of the speech were, the continued assurances of amity received from foreign powers; the splendid success of the bombardment of Algiers, with the

consequent renunciation of the practice of Christian slavery; and the successful termination of the campaign in India. The annual estimates had been formed under an anxious desire to make every reduction in the public establishments which the safety of the empire and true policy would allow; but his Royal Highness regretted to state that there had been a deficiency in the produce of the last year's revenue: he trusted, however, that it was to be ascribed to temporary causes; and he had the consolation to believe that it would be found practicable to provide for the service without making any additions to the burdens of the people, and without adopting any means injurious to that system by which the public safety had been hitherto maintained. His Royal Highness thus concluded:—"In considering our internal situation, you will, I doubt not, feel a just indignation at the attempts which have been made to take advantage of the distresses of the country, for the purpose of exciting a spirit of sedition and violence. I am too well convinced of the loyalty and good sense of the great body of his Majesty's subjects, to believe them capable of being perverted by the arts which are employed to seduce them; but I am determined to omit no precautions for preserving the public peace, and for counteracting the designs of the disaffected. And I rely with the utmost confidence on your cordial support and co-operation, in upholding a system of law and government from which we have derived inestimable advantages; which has enabled us to conclude, with unexampled glory, a contest whereon depended the best interests of mankind, and which has been hitherto felt by ourselves, as it is acknowledged by other nations, to be the most perfect that has fallen to the lot of any people."

The riotous spirit which had lately displayed itself again broke out on this occasion; and the Prince-regent, on his way to the House, was assailed by tumultuous expressions of disapprobation from an unusually large concourse of people, whose conduct, on the return of the procession, became more violent. The royal carriage was attacked with stones and other missiles in an alarming manner, and the glass was broken by what Lord James Murray, who was in the carriage, supposed to be two balls from an air-gun, aimed at the person of the Prince-regent. This outrage was communicated to the House of Peers by Lord Sidmouth, when the consideration of the usual address in answer to the speech was postponed till the following day, and a conference was held with the House of Commons, at which a joint address, congratulating his Royal Highness on his escape, was agreed upon. A proclamation was issued, offering a reward of 1000*l.* for the apprehension of the offenders; but they were never discovered, and it does not appear probable that assassination was intended, or that any missiles more destructive than stones were used.

On the ensuing evening Earl Grey moved an amendment on the address in answer to the speech, chiefly for the purpose of expressing an opinion that the Prince-regent was under a delusion respecting the degree and probable duration of the pressure on the resources of the country, which was declared to be much more extensive in its operations, more severe in its effects, more deep and general in its causes, and more difficult to be removed, than that which had prevailed at the termination of any former war. To this declaration was added a profession of regret that his Royal Highness should not sooner have been advised to adopt measures of the most rigid economy

and retrenchment, particularly with respect to our military establishments; and a resolution that the House should go immediately into a committee on the state of the nation. The amendment, however, was negatived without a division; and a similar one, moved in the Commons on the preceding day, was rejected by 264 against 112.

On the 3d of February a message was communicated to both Houses, announcing that the Prince-regent had ordered to be laid before Parliament papers containing an account of certain meetings and combinations held in different parts of the country, tending to the disturbance of the public tranquillity, the alienation of the affections of the people from his Majesty's person and government, and the overthrow of the whole frame and system of the law and constitution; his Royal Highness recommended the papers to immediate consideration, and they were referred by each House to a secret committee.

Another communication, of a different nature, was made to the House of Commons by Lord Castlereagh, on the 7th of the same month, previously to his moving for the appointment of a committee of inquiry respecting the income and expenditure of the state. His lordship said that he had it in command from the Prince-regent to announce, that, sympathising with the sufferings of a generous people, he had determined upon a cession of 50,000*l. per annum* of that part of his income which related to his personal expenses, during the continuance of the present difficulties. At the same time, his lordship communicated the intention of ministers voluntarily to dispense with one-tenth of their official incomes, while the necessities of the state should require such a concession. Lord Camden, one of the tellers of the exchequer, also relin-

quished, *pro tempore*, the whole of the enormous profits of that sinecure office, with the exception of 2500*l.* the regulated income of the other tellers. This, it was expected, would effect a saving of 16 or 18,000*l.* a year. On the reduced scale, the expenditure for the year was estimated at 6,500,000*l.* less than that of the preceding year, and a further saving of upwards of 1,000,000*l.* was calculated upon for 1818.

The first report of the committee of inquiry into the income and expenditure, relating to the abolition of sinecures, was made on the 5th of May, when Mr. Davies Gilbert stated, that, in recommending the suppression of certain offices, it was necessary that some other mode should be pointed out in which his Majesty could reward meritorious services; and a system had been devised, which, under certain restrictions, might answer every purpose. This was, the granting of pensions for services performed; the time or duration of service being one of the criteria by which the crown was to be guided in rewarding the exertions of public officers. A bill, entitled the Civil Services' Compensation Bill, was accordingly introduced, together with another for abolishing the offices of wardens and justices in Eyre; and they passed through both Houses with little opposition.

Notwithstanding the expectation of coercive measures to be adopted by government, a meeting of the populace, headed by Mr. Hunt and his friends, under the ostensible motive of petitioning for parliamentary reform, was held in Spa Fields on the 10th of February, and a similar meeting in Palace Yard, Westminster, on the 13th, at neither of which any thing remarkable occurred.

The report of the secret committee of the House of Lords was presented on the 18th of February, and

commenced by stating that, having examined the papers referred to them, the committee found, from the evidence contained therein, that there was no doubt that treasonable conspiracies had been formed in the metropolis and elsewhere, which had for their object the total overthrow of the laws and government, and the indiscriminate plunder and division of property. As early as August last, different meetings had been held in the metropolis, with a view to promote their objects. Arms were purchased for that purpose, and other measures of the like kind resorted to. At subsequent consultations it was resolved, as the best mode of collecting together a great number of people, to call a public meeting in Spa Fields, which was fixed for the 15th of November. Among other circumstances detailed were those of the conspirators having prepared addresses, and circulated them in the gaols, informing the prisoners they would shortly be liberated, and urging them to hold themselves in readiness for that event, when they would be armed by the provisional government. In these addresses they were also desired to prepare themselves with tri-coloured cockades, emblematic of the approaching revolution. Plans were also formed for an attack upon the Tower, pikes were manufactured to arm the people, leaders were appointed to conduct the assaults in different districts, and fire-arms were distributed amongst those who were considered most worthy of confidence. While these arrangements were formed, the leaders of the conspiracy were found, night after night, in public houses, working up the minds of the people whom they might meet there, so as to render them ready instruments to execute any project, however desperate. Exertions were also made to win over the soldiers to their cause. Tri-coloured flags were pre-

pared, together with a banner, on which was inscribed, "The brave soldiers are our friends—treat them kindly;" and it appeared that, down to the 2d of December, they had the fullest confidence of success. It further appeared that communications regularly took place between the conspirators in the metropolis, and persons actuated by similar feelings in other parts of the country; and that matters were so regulated as that their efforts should be devoted to the same purpose in different quarters at one time; for which end it was agreed that they should all hold meetings on the same day, and thereby effect a general rising at once; and this was to be done under the pretence that they were to petition the Prince-regent, the real object being to promote a spirit of insubordination; a contempt of all laws, whether religious or otherwise; an equal division of all property, and a restoration to what was termed natural rights. The next point upon which the report touched was the existence of societies in various parts of the kingdom, under the titles of Hampden clubs, Spencean philanthropists, &c. the intent of which was, under the disguise of constitutional proceedings, to extend the plans of devastation and destruction already described. It disclaimed a general imputation of disloyalty against the members of these clubs; but at the same time remarked on the pernicious use which was made of such cloaks. A reference was then had to the administration of secret courts, and to the extraordinary measures which were taken by the conspirators to prevent a discovery of their plots—plots which were found to have existence in all the great manufacturing towns throughout the country, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, &c. The last topic alluded to was the publication of inflammatory and seditious works at a cheap rate, the object of

which was to root out all feelings of religion and morality, and to excite hatred and contempt for the existing state of things. The committee, *in fine*, attributed the late attack upon the Prince-regent to the effect produced by those publications, and expressed it as their decided opinion, that the civil power, as at present constituted, under all the circumstances stated, was insufficient for the preservation of the public peace. On the following evening a report, similar in object and effect, was presented from the committee of the House of Commons.

In consequence of the circumstances developed by the secret committees of Parliament, four persons, of the names of Watson, Preston, Hooper, and Keene, were apprehended and committed to the Tower on a charge of high treason. A reward of 500*l.* was also offered for the apprehension of a man of the name of Thistlewood; and a further reward of 500*l.* for the junior Watson. The metropolis, indeed, as well as several other parts of the kingdom, was for some time in a state of great alarm.

The first Parliamentary consequence of the reports of the secret committees was a motion by Lord Sidmouth, in the Upper House, for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act until the 1st of July, then next ensuing. A bill to this effect was read the first time on the 21st of February; on the 24th it was read a second and third time, passed, and ordered to the Commons, where it went through its different stages with equal rapidity; and on the 4th of March received the royal assent. This measure was carried by a great majority in the Lords, but not without strong opposition from several eminent noblemen; eighteen of whom entered a formal protest against the bill, on the ground that the report of the secret committee had not stated

such a case of imminent and pressing danger as might not be provided against by the existing laws, or one which warranted the suspension of the most important security to the liberty of the country.

In addition to the *habeas corpus* suspension act, Lord Castlereagh, in the House of Commons, gave notice of farther measures for the protection of the country against the machinations of the disaffected. These were; first, the extending of the act of 1795, for the security of his Majesty's person, to that of the Prince-regent; secondly, the embodying into one act the provisions of the act of 1795, relative to tumultuous meetings and debating societies, and the provisions of the act of the 30th of the King, which declared the illegality of all societies bound together by secret oaths, and of such as extended themselves by fraternized branches over the Kingdom; and, lastly, the making of enactments to punish with the utmost rigour any attempt to gain over soldiers or sailors to act with any association or set of men, or to withdraw them from their allegiance. Numerous petitions against these proposed restrictions on public liberty, particularly against the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, were presented to Parliament; and in the respective Houses they were opposed, in every stage of their rapid progress, by such members as usually stood forward to advocate the privileges of the people: they, however, finally received the sanction of the legislature.

On the 28th of April the chancellor of the exchequer, in a committee of the House, proposed that exchequer bills to an amount not exceeding 500,000*l.* should be issued to commissioners, to be by them applied to the completion of public works in progress, or about to be commenced; to encourage the fisheries, and to employ the poor in the different parishes of

Great Britain, on due security being given for the repayment of the sums so advanced. He also moved that the Lord-lieutenant of Ireland might be empowered to advance, out of the consolidated fund of that kingdom, a sum not exceeding 250,000*l.* for the same purposes, under condition of repayment in a time to be limited. In the disposal of the money, the commissioners were especially to consider the influence which the prosecution of any public work might have on the occupation of the unemployed population. These resolutions were agreed to, and a bill framed upon them was passed.

In the course of this session several unsuccessful attempts were made, by the members of the opposition, to lessen the expenses of government, by the abolition of unnecessary offices, and the reduction of enormous salaries. Mr. Grattan's annual motion in favour of the Irish Catholics was defeated by a majority of 24; and Lord Donoughmore's corresponding motion in the Upper House was negatived by 142 votes against 90.

At the latter end of May the office of Speaker of the House of Commons was resigned, on the ground of illness, by Mr. Abbot, on whom the Prince-regent immediately conferred the title of Baron Colchester, and the Right Hon. Charles Manners Sutton was elected to succeed him as speaker.

On the assembling of the Peers after the Easter recess, it was ordered, on the motion of Earl Grey, that a copy of the circular letter which had then recently been addressed by the secretary of state for the home department to the lords-lieutenant of counties, relative to seditious or blasphemous publications, be laid before the House. In this document Lord Sidmouth had stated, that, as it was of the greatest im-

portance to prevent, if possible, the circulation of the blasphemous and seditious pamphlets and writings then distributed in great numbers through the country, he had thought it his duty to consult the law officers of the crown, whether a person found selling, or in any other way publishing such writings, might be brought immediately before a justice of the peace, by warrant, to answer for his conduct; and the law officers, after consideration, had notified to him their opinion, that a justice of the peace might issue his warrant for the apprehension of a person charged before him, on oath, with the publication of such libels, and compel him to give bail to answer the charge. Under these circumstances, his lordship desired to call the attention of the lords-lieutenant particularly to the subject, and requested that they would notify such opinion to the chairman at the quarter-sessions, in order that magistrates might act upon it. Subsequently to the production of this circular, Earl Grey introduced the subject to the Peers, in a speech replete with legal information, in which he contended against the principle that a justice of the peace might be called upon by any common informer to decide what was or was not a libel, and to commit or hold to bail, upon his sole judgment, the party accused. His lordship further held that such a specific intimation to magistrates, as to the mode in which they were to construe the law, even supposing the law itself to be clear and undisputed, would have been a high offence against the constitution. Earl Grey's motion, which was for the production of the case which had been submitted to the law officers of the crown, on whose opinion Lord Sidmouth's circular to the magistrates had been issued, was supported by Lords Erskine and Holland, and opposed by Lords Ellenborough and Eldon; and, on

a division, it was negatived by 75 against 19. The subject was introduced into the House of Commons by Sir Samuel Romilly, and decided in a similar manner. He strongly animadverted upon the tyranny and oppression to which this unwarranted interpretation of the law, as he conceived it to be, would open a door; and moved two resolutions, declaring it to be highly prejudicial to the due administration of justice for any minister of the crown to interfere with the magistrates, in cases where a discretion was supposed to be vested in them, by suggesting how that discretion was to be exercised; and that it was a dangerous extension of the prerogative for the minister to declare, in his official character, to the magistracy, what he conceived to be the law of the land, especially where the security of the subject and the liberty of the press were deeply affected.

The country continuing to be in an alarming state, messages from the Prince-regent were sent down to both Houses on the 3d of June, stating that his Royal Highness had ordered to be laid before Parliament papers containing information of practices, meetings, and combinations, carried on in different parts of the kingdom, tending to disturb the public peace and tranquillity, and to endanger the constitution of these realms; and recommending to Parliament to take the same into its immediate consideration. The papers produced were accordingly referred, as in a former case, to committees of secrecy. The report of the Lords' committee, presented on the 12th of June, stated, in substance, that having taken into their consideration the subject of the papers communicated to them, and fully considered the statements on which the communications were founded, they were of opinion that the spirit of tumult and insurrection which gave

rise to the bill now in operation, for suspending the *habeas corpus*, had by no means subsided; that the same spirit was still active; and that it was only by the vigilance of the magistrates, aided by the operation of the present bill, and their communications with the government, that the spirit of tumult and rebellion was kept down; that active preparations were still going on in several parts of the country amongst the lowest orders, in manufacturing districts, with a view to subvert the constitution of this country; and that the revival of the said bill for six months longer was absolutely necessary, to secure the public peace. The report from the committee of the House of Commons was not presented till eight days afterwards. That document, which was of considerable length, traced the history of several plots, from certain proceedings at Manchester, in the month of March, to others in Derbyshire on the 9th of June, concluding in the following words:—"Confidently as they (the committee) rely on the loyalty and good disposition of his Majesty's subjects (even in those parts of the country in which the spirit of disaffection has shown itself in the most formidable shape), they cannot but express their conviction that it is not yet safe to rely entirely for the preservation of the public tranquillity upon the ordinary powers of the law." It was admitted, in the reports, that the evidence laid before the committees had, in a great measure, been derived from the depositions and communications of persons who were more or less implicated in the criminal transactions under consideration, or who had apparently engaged in them with a view of giving information to government. The evidence of both these classes of persons, it was observed, must be regarded with a degree of suspicion; and there was reason to appre-

hend that the language and conduct of some of the latter might, in certain instances, have had the effect of encouraging designs which it was intended they should only be the instruments of detecting. Many warm debates ensued; in the course of which ministers defended, and most strenuously insisted upon, such an employment of spies as had been alluded to in the reports of the secret committees; and a further suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, till the 1st of March in the ensuing year, was agreed to.

On the 9th of July Mr. Wilberforce moved for an address to the Prince-regent, submitting, in the most dutiful but urgent terms, the expression of our continued and unceasing solicitude for the universal and final abolition of the African slave-trade amongst the European powers, which was agreed to without a dissentient voice.

On the same evening a discussion of considerable interest took place upon a series of resolutions on finance, which had been brought forward by Mr. Tierney. In opposing those resolutions, the chancellor of the exchequer contended, that, as Mr. Tierney's arguments were well founded, they only went to prove the propriety of the financial plan upon which he (Mr. Vansittart) was not allowed to proceed. If that system (the income-tax) had been acted upon, it would have produced a considerable discharge of the national incumbrances; and he could not, therefore, help regretting that it was not adopted. If the encouraging prospects now opening should unhappily fail, he was decidedly of opinion that vigorous measures ought to be resorted to for the improvement of our financial situation; but he hoped the state of the country would not require them. That, amidst all our difficulties, such an improvement as existed should have taken place in

the funds was considered extraordinary; but the present session of Parliament had dispelled for ever the suggestions of a system of innovation and bad faith, which, for a time, united with other circumstances of the country to lower public credit. He now trusted that public credit would still further rise, though at that moment the country was not actually paying more than three *per cent.* interest on the exchequer bills. Doubts had been expressed as to the resumption of cash payments by the Bank; but nothing less than an extraordinary political or commercial shock would prevent its taking place in July next. The national prospect was improved by the hope of an abundant harvest, not merely in this country, but throughout the Continent; and he thought we might reasonably look to a more extensive and productive commercial intercourse. After a debate of considerable length, the previous question was carried upon each of Mr. Tierney's resolutions; and the counter-resolutions of Mr. C. Grant were put and carried in their stead.

The last important debate of the session was that which took place in the House of Commons on Mr. Brougham's motion for an inquiry into the state of the nation; a motion which appeared to be introduced, not with any expectation of its being carried, but for the purpose of enabling the mover, as the organ of opposition in the Lower House, to enter a protest, in detail, against the whole of the acts and proceedings of ministers. Lord Castlereagh, in reply, entered into a defence of himself and of his colleagues; and the motion was negatived without a division.

The prorogation of Parliament, by a speech from the throne, took place on the 12th of July, when the Prince-regent, after regretting the King's continued

indisposition, and glancing at the respective subjects which had passed under the consideration of Parliament, noticed the prospect of an abundant harvest, not only in this country, but throughout a considerable part of the Continent; from which, and other circumstances, he anticipated an improvement in the commercial relations of this and all other countries.

The disturbances at Manchester, alluded to in the last-mentioned report of the secret committee of the House of Commons, appear to have been of a very extraordinary description. At a public meeting held near St. Peter's church, on the 3d of March, by persons denominating themselves friends of parliamentary reform, notices were issued that the espousers of their doctrines should assemble at the same place on the 10th, and proceed thence to the metropolis, to present a petition to the Prince-regent, that they might be enabled to *undeceive* him! Accordingly, on the appointed day, crowds of people flocked into Manchester, from all directions, as early as eight o'clock in the morning; and the instigators, from their temporary stage in a cart, harangued the multitude, till their vastly increasing numbers suggested the expediency of putting into practice the arrangements of the civil and military powers. A party of dragoons, accompanied by the magistrates of the district, then appeared amongst them; surrounded the erection, and immediately conveyed the entire group upon it to the New Bailey prison. Their attention was next directed to the concourse of auditors, who were forthwith dispersed without the infliction of any severity. Johnson and Ogden, two of the leaders upon former occasions, had been arrested on the previous morning, and were secured in the New Bailey. Others were seized by the soldiers on their way to deliver their charge in

Salford. A considerable number of people set out on their mission to London, taking the route of Stockport; but above 40 of them were reconducted to Manchester, and others were secured in Stockport. Most of them were provided with knapsacks, &c. containing blankets and other articles. Upon the examination of some of these travelling equipages, two unusually large knives were discovered. At one period there was an assemblage of at least 80,000 people at the meeting; and it was supposed that not fewer than 60 or 70,000 arrived at Manchester in the course of the day. Not more, however, than 500, out of the many thousands assembled in the morning, penetrated so far as Macclesfield, where a troop of the yeomanry had remained to provide against such a contingency; and no more than 20 persons proceeded from Macclesfield into Staffordshire, the adjoining county. Nothing could be more wretched and pitiable than the appearance of the few who reached Macclesfield; some actually fainting through weariness, and all of them without baggage, or any apparent resource with which to proceed 20 miles further towards London. Thus ended what has since been known under the quaint appellation of the Blanketeering Expedition.

In the month of June the senior Watson was, with Thistlewood and some others, put upon his trial, on a charge of high treason, in the Court of King's Bench; but, chiefly from the discredit thrown on the testimony of the principal witness, named Castles, an accomplice or spy, and a man of bad character, the jury returned a verdict of not guilty. In the course of the summer the turbulent disposition of the manufacturing classes exhibited itself in several of the northern and midland counties, particularly in those of Derby, Nottingham, York, and Lancaster, in many atrocious acts of tumult

hands. In Austria the pecuniary embarrassments of the government were very great, and in Spain the finances were also in a distressed condition, which the want of cordiality between the governors and the governed was little calculated to relieve. In Valencia the people raised the cry of the constitution, and were with difficulty reduced to submission, whilst at Barcelona a formidable conspiracy was detected. The fanatical Ferdinand, in the mean time, signalised his most catholic zeal by prohibiting all books which impugned the authority of the pope, and the holy tribunal of the inquisition. In South America the contest was protracted with various success; but the thread by which the authority of Spain was held became evidently more slender. In Brazil the court evinced little disposition to return to Europe; and Portugal being thus degraded into the rank of a tributary state, a plan for the establishment of an independent government was secretly agitated, but was discovered in time to defeat its object, and the principal promoters of the measure, General de Andrada and Baron Eben, with many of their adherents, were arrested. In the United States Mr. Monroe succeeded Mr. Madison as president, and the country rapidly recovered from the temporary pressure which the recent war with Great Britain had occasioned.

Parliament was opened by commission on the 27th of January, 1818, and the royal speech was calculated to allay the apprehensions of tumult and conspiracy which had been long entertained, and to inspire confidence in the resources of the country. Its principal topics were—the continued indisposition of his Majesty; the lamented death of the Princess Charlotte; an intimation that the Prince-regent had not been unmindful of the effect which that sad event must have had on the interests and future prospects of the

kingdom (alluding to negotiations then on the tapis for the marriage of some of his younger brothers); an assurance of the continued friendly disposition of foreign powers; the improved state of industry and public credit; the restored tranquillity of the country; the treaties with Spain and Portugal on the abolition of the slave-trade; a recommendation for increasing the number of places of public worship; &c. An address, with very little discussion, was agreed to in each House: in the Commons, however, Sir Samuel Romilly, in opposing it, severely reprobated the conduct of ministers under the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, remarking that, in the case of Brandreth, the chief of the Derby insurgents, they had not availed themselves of the powers given them by that measure to prevent the mischief which had been threatened, by apprehending and putting him in confinement, but had allowed him to go on to the perpetration of the capital crime, for which his life was ultimately exacted as the forfeit. Sir Samuel observed, also, that a large portion of the evidence which had been produced before the secret committee went to prove the existence of a conspiracy, of the most atrocious kind, in the town of Manchester, for which some persons were alleged to be in custody. The trials of those persons had been removed, by *certiorari*, to the Court of King's Bench, purposely, as he contended, to delay their being brought forward; and the whole of the prisoners had been dismissed for the want of the production of evidence against them. This, he insisted, was a very improper exercise of lenity, if it were true that those men had conspired to burn factories, to attack barracks, and to produce a revolution. Lord Castlereagh, in defending the conduct of ministers, observed, that the doctrine which had been held respecting the trials at Derby,

and the assertion that Oliver, the spy, was intimately connected with those transactions, were pregnant with evil, and did not rest on any foundation. He should in all probability be authorized, at a very early day, to make a communication to the House on the subject of the state of the country, and to lay before Parliament such evidence as would prove government not unworthy of the confidence of the public, and that the present tranquil state of the country was entirely owing to the measures which Parliament had adopted during the last session.

In the Upper House a motion was made by Lord Sidmouth for the immediate repeal of the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, which called forth some strong remarks from Lord Holland, respecting the partial and suspicious nature of the evidence on which that important right had been suspended, and the pernicious precedent thus established in a time of profound peace, when nothing had appeared in the state of the country to justify such a proceeding. The bill was introduced into the House of Peers on the 28th of January, the day after the opening of Parliament, and passed through all its stages; the same bill was passed through the Lower House on the 29th; and on the 31st it received the royal assent.

On the 4th of February Lord Castlereagh, by command of the Prince-regent, brought down to the House of Commons a bag of papers respecting the internal state of the country, for the examination of which his lordship proposed that a select committee should be appointed. As this was understood to be a step preliminary to a general bill of indemnity for all acts performed under the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, by which the persons then imprisoned, and since liberated without trial, would be deprived of all

legal remedy for such imprisonment, however unmerited, the appointment of a secret or select committee was strenuously resisted by the members of opposition, who contended that a very different sort of inquiry was called for by the conduct of ministers. The green bag and its contents formed the subject of much keen sarcasm: the appointment of a select committee was, however, agreed to, and a similar committee was also appointed in the Upper House. At this period, and for some time afterwards, numerous petitions were presented to Parliament by persons who had been imprisoned under the late suspension of the *habeas corpus* law, praying for redress, and that no act of indemnity might be passed in favour of ministers. On the 23d of February, however, the report of the secret committee of the House of Lords was presented; it related chiefly to the recent disturbances in the counties of Nottingham and Derby, and in the west riding of Yorkshire. The progress of insurrection had been considerably checked by the arrests and trials which had taken place; while an increase of employment had rendered the labouring classes less disposed to embrace the desperate measures of the disaffected. Some of the conspirators were still active, especially in London, and appeared determined to persevere, though with decreasing numbers and resources: the committee therefore represented that the vigilance of government, and of the magistrates in the districts which had been most disturbed, would be necessary: the report proceeded to state that 44 persons appeared to have been arrested, under warrants of the secretary of state, who had not been brought to trial; but that these arrests were fully justified by circumstances, and that no warrant of detention appeared to have been issued, except in consequence of information on oath.

The persons detained and not prosecuted had been at different times discharged; and the committee added their conviction, that the government had exercised the powers vested in them with due discretion and moderation.

On the 25th a bill of indemnity, founded on this report, was brought in by the Duke of Montrose; and, on the motion for its second reading, the Marquis of Lansdowne proposed, as an amendment, that it should be postponed for a fortnight, to give time for all the petitions from persons recently imprisoned under the suspension act to be brought up. This amendment was lost, on a division, by 100 against 63. Its third reading, on the 5th of March, was carried by 98 against 27, on a proposed amendment, the object of which was to get rid of the bill. When introduced to the House of Commons, by the attorney-general, on the 9th of March, it called forth the powers of several able speakers, by whom it was opposed in all its stages. Sir Samuel Romilly observed, that it was improperly called a bill of indemnity: the object of indemnity was only to protect individuals against public prosecution, without interfering with the rights of private men; but the object of this was to annihilate such rights—to take away all legal remedies from those who had suffered an illegal and arbitrary exercise of authority, and to punish those who presumed to have recourse to such remedies, by subjecting them to the payment of double costs. He strongly pointed out the ill effects of the protection which it was meant to extend towards magistrates, in any acts of oppression which they might suppose agreeable to ministers, and to the profligate persons who had been employed as spies and informers. Mr. Lambton's motion, that the bill be read a third time that day six months, was

negatived, on a division, by 190 against 64; the second reading was carried the next day, on a division, by 89 against 24; on the 13th the bill passed; and on the 17th it received the royal assent.

At an early period of the session Mr. Grenfell inquired of the chancellor of the exchequer whether any event had occurred, or was likely to occur, which would prevent the resumption of cash payments by the Bank on the 5th of July. He also observed that the public stood in the situation of debtor to the Bank for the sum of three millions, advanced without interest, and for six millions, at an interest of four *per cent.*; and, as the Bank had secured to themselves the undisturbed possession of a balance of the public money deposited in their hands, which for the last twelve years had amounted, on an average, to eleven millions, until the repayment of these sums, he desired to know whether any arrangement was in progress for discharging them, or for placing them on a better footing. The chancellor of the exchequer replied; that the Bank had made ample preparation for resuming its payments in cash at the time fixed by Parliament; but that pecuniary arrangements with foreign powers were going on, which might probably require a continuance of the restriction. As to the loan of six millions, he should, ere long, submit a proposition for its payment; but, with respect to the three millions without interest, he thought the House would not be reconciled to any proposition for depriving the public of so important an accommodation. On a subsequent occasion, the chancellor of the exchequer, in submitting certain propositions to a committee of the House, observed that, in January, 1817, the Bank had given notice that they were ready to pay in specie outstanding notes of a particular description;

by which cash might then have been demanded to the amount of about one million sterling ; but so little interest did the public take in the offered payment, that a very inconsiderable sum was called for. At that time gold bullion was reduced to 3*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* and silver to 4*s.* 10*d.* the ounce. In October following the Bank gave notice that they would be ready to pay in cash all notes dated prior to the 1st of January, 1817 ; but the result was greatly different from that of the former experiment, upwards of two millions and a half having been issued under this last notice, of which hardly any part remained in circulation. The difference in the result of the two experiments arose from the large remittances to foreign countries, in consequence of the importations of corn rendered necessary by the scarcity, the migration of Englishmen to the Continent, and the negociation of a large French loan in this country. It was not now, therefore, advisable for the Bank to resume cash payments ; and the restriction was accordingly continued until the 5th of July, 1819.

The treaty with Spain respecting the African slave-trade, by which, in consideration of a subsidy of 400,000*l.* she consented to the abolition of that inhuman traffic on all the coasts to the north of the line, (retaining for herself, however, a right of continuing it indefinitely to the south of that limit,) received the sanction of Parliament. According to its regulations, no detention under the stipulated right of search was to take place, except in the case of slaves being found actually on board. It was necessary that each nation should have an equal right of discovering the illicit practices which had been carried on by the other ; and, unhappily, the guilt in the present instance was chargeable on certain British subjects, as well as on those of Spain.

On the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, the sum of 1,000,000*l.* was granted, to be raised by exchequer bills, for the purpose of supplying the deficiency of places of worship belonging to the establishment, by building new churches and chapels of ease where the increase of inhabitants rendered such accommodation necessary. A considerable sum was also raised by subscription in furtherance of this laudable object.

On the 13th of April a message from the Prince-regent to both Houses announced the approaching marriages of the Duke of Clarence to the Princess of Saxe Meiningen, and of the Duke of Cambridge to the Princess of Hesse, and expressed his confidence that a proper provision would be made by Parliament on the occasion. From the discussion which ensued in the Commons, it appeared that a plan had been submitted by ministers to their parliamentary friends, at a meeting holden for that purpose; but that the proposition had met a very cold reception; and several gentlemen who had been at the meeting now declared that they could not accede to its terms. Mr. Brougham proposed an amendment to the address, which amendment was sustained by what was termed the alarming minority of 93 against 144. The address, of course, was carried, and the message was ordered to be taken into consideration on the following evening. On the following evening, however, contrary to all precedent on such occasions, the proceedings were postponed till Wednesday! In a very warm conversation which took place on the subject, Mr. Tierney stated it to be the intention of ministers to propose an annual addition of 19,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* to the income of the Duke of Clarence, and of 12,000*l.* respectively to the Dukes of Kent, Cumberland, and

Cambridge, with an outfit to each to the amount of the additional income. On Wednesday, the 15th, Lord Castlereagh, admitting Mr. Tierney's statement to have been substantially correct, informed the House that the intended proposition had been modified; but that nothing less, in addition to the Duke of Clarence's income, than 10,000*l.* could possibly enable him to support the dignity of his rank in the married state. His lordship accordingly moved a resolution, for a grant to that amount. An amendment, however, was moved, making the additional sum 6000*l.* instead of 10,000*l.*; and the amendment was carried, on a division, by 193 against 184—giving a majority of nine against the ministers! On the Tuesday evening following, having announced that the Duke of Clarence could not accept of the 6000*l.* as it was inadequate to enable him to support the dignity of his rank in a marriage state, Lord Castlereagh moved a resolution for a grant of an additional income of 6000*l.* a year to the Duke of Cambridge. This motion was strongly opposed by Mr. Brougham, but ultimately carried.

A few days previously to these discussions, her Royal Highness the Princess Elizabeth had been united to the Prince of Hesse Homberg; but, as she was in the enjoyment of 9000*l.* a year, settled on her by the state, no proposal whatever was made for a marriage dowry. For a time the Duke of Clarence, in consequence of the pecuniary disappointment to which he had been subjected by Parliament, relinquished, or professed to have relinquished, his intended marriage. At a subsequent period, however, the union took place. In the ensuing month an announcement of the intended marriage of the Duke of Kent with the dowager Princess of Leiningen, sister

of Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, produced a grant to the royal pair to the same amount as in the cases of the Dukes of Cumberland and Cambridge.

The supplies of this year were estimated at the sum of 20,952,400*l.*; to meet which, in addition to the produce of ways and means, a three and a half per cent. stock was created to the amount of 14,000,000*l.* By this expedient no new taxes were levied, nor were any additions made to the old ones.

The alien act was continued for two years, on the ground that it was necessary to keep out, as well as to send out of Great Britain, those persons who should avail themselves of the vicinity of France, to foster a spirit menacing to the security of this and the other governments of Europe. On the motion of the lord-chancellor, a clause was introduced, by which all persons who might have been naturalized since the 28th of April by the purchase of shares in the bank of Scotland, or who might claim to be naturalized by becoming partners in that bank, after the passing of this act, should be deemed and taken to be aliens, notwithstanding any existing act of the parliament of Scotland, so long as the provisions of this law respecting aliens should remain in force.

A committee was formed in the House of Commons early in the year, to consider of a bill, proposed by Mr. Brougham, respecting the education of the poor; and an inquiry was instituted into the state and management of charitable funds. For this inquiry fourteen commissioners were to be appointed by the crown, six of whom were to have no salaries. The bill, in its passage through the House of Lords, underwent various changes. The commissioners were limited to one description of charities, namely, those connected with education: they were precluded by

circumstances, over which they could not have control, from investigating the state of the education of the poor generally: they were directed to traverse the country, and to call witnesses before them, but were to possess no authority for enforcing attendance, or for demanding the production of any one document. Mr. Brougham observed that the bill, as it now stood, left every thing to the good will of those who had an interest at variance with the inquiry, yet much good might still result from the exercise of the powers possessed by the House. The means to be used were, that the commissioners should proceed and call witnesses; that they should report occasionally to the House, and make returns of the names of all persons refusing to give information, or to produce documents, without alleging any just cause of refusal; and the committee, which would be reappointed next session, might be empowered to call those persons before them. Mr. Brougham then proposed an address to the Prince-regent, praying for the appointment of a commission to inquire into the state of education of the poor throughout England and Wales, and to report thereupon. On this address the previous question was moved and carried; and the same fate attended another proposal, that the commissioners appointed under the bill should inquire into the abuses of charities not connected with education.

After a comparatively unimportant session, Parliament was dissolved by the Prince-regent in person, on the 10th of June. Having stated his intention to give directions for calling a new parliament, his Royal Highness thus proceeded: "I cannot refrain from adverting to the important change which has occurred in the situation of this country and of all Europe, since I first met you in this place. At that period, the dominion of the com-

mon enemy had been so widely extended over the Continent, that resistance to his power was, by many, deemed to be hopeless; and in the extremities of Europe alone was such resistance effectually maintained. By the unexampled exertions which you enabled me to make, in aid of countries nobly contending for independence, and by the spirit which was kindled in so many nations, the Continent was at length delivered from the most galling and oppressive tyranny under which it had ever laboured; and I had the happiness, by the blessing of Divine Providence, to terminate, in conjunction with his Majesty's allies, the most eventful and sanguinary contest in which Europe had for centuries been engaged, with unparalleled success and glory. The prosecution of such a contest for so many years, and more particularly the efforts which marked the close of it, have been followed within our own country, as well as throughout the rest of Europe, by considerable internal difficulties and distress. But, deeply as I felt for the immediate pressure upon his Majesty's people, nevertheless I looked forward without dismay, having always the fullest confidence in the solidity of the resources of the British empire, and in the relief which might be expected from a continuance of peace, and from the patience, public spirit, and energy of the nation. These expectations have not been disappointed. The improvement in the internal circumstances of the country is happily manifest, and promises to be steadily progressive; and I feel a perfect assurance that the continued loyalty and exertions of all classes of his Majesty's subjects will confirm these growing indications of national prosperity, by promoting obedience to the laws, and attachment to the constitution, from which all our blessings have been derived."

On the 4th of November an important notification was addressed to the Duke of Richelieu, the prime minister of France, by the plenipotentiaries of the courts of Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle, stating that their august masters, being called upon by the 20th article of the treaty of Paris to examine, in concert with the King of France, whether the military occupation of a part of the French territory, stipulated by that treaty, ought to cease at the termination of the third year, or be prolonged to that of the fifth, had recognised, with satisfaction, that the order of things established by the restoration of the legitimate and constitutional monarchy of that country gave assurance of the consolidation of that state of tranquillity in France necessary for the repose of Europe; and that, in consequence, they had commanded the immediate discontinuance of such military occupation: a measure which they regarded as the completion of the general peace. This information was received with delight by the French people; and, although some slight ebullitions of seditious feeling have since occasionally presented themselves, the event has happily proved that the presence of foreign troops was no longer necessary.

Throughout the summer the cotton-spinners, and other labouring classes of manufacturers at Manchester, and in the neighbouring parts of the country, remained in a state of organized opposition to their masters on the subject of wages. From this cause several partial disturbances arose; one in particular at Burnley, and another at Stockport. Fortunately, through the prompt exertions of the Manchester yeomanry, these irruptions were put down, without bloodshed or actual violence. It is too probable, however, that much hostility and bitterness of feeling were thus

mutually excited between the lower classes and the yeomanry, the effects of which burst forth with calamitous fury at a subsequent period.

In consequence of the Queen's declining health, two amendments had been made in the regency bill during the last session of Parliament. The first empowered her Majesty to add six new members, resident at Windsor, to her council, in the event of her absence from that residence; and the second repealed the clause which rendered necessary the immediate assembling of a new parliament in the event of the Queen's death. These amendments were very opportunely made; as, after a lingering illness of six months, which was sustained with great fortitude and resignation, her Majesty expired at Kew-palace, on the 17th of November, in the 75th year of her age. She had been blest by nature with a sound and vigorous frame, having, until within two years of her decease, enjoyed an almost uninterrupted state of health. Her remains were interred at Windsor on the 2d of December, and the day was observed with every suitable mark of respect.

Queen Charlotte was the mother of fifteen fine children, of whom all but the three youngest survived her. Though she could boast no claim to beauty, she was not deficient in those accomplishments which add grace and dignity to an exalted station. As a wife and a mother she was a pattern to her sex, performing all the tender and maternal offices of a nurse to her royal offspring—an example but too seldom followed. During the long period in which her Majesty may be said to have presided over the English court, it was remarkable for the steady countenance uniformly extended to virtue, and as uniformly withdrawn from its opposite. Having married at an early period of

life, it required a more than ordinary effort of intellect to resist the false glare of a court and all its fascinations. At that time there was hardly a court in Europe that was not marked by its licentiousness. The vices of the French court notoriously led to the revolution, which deluged that country with blood; and it is equally true that the same cause occasioned, in a great measure, the horrors with which Spain and Naples were subsequently visited. During that time England presented from the throne the example of those virtues that form the great and binding links of the social chain; and to it we may in part ascribe our happiness in having withstood the storm which visited the rest of Europe with all the horrors of invasion or anarchy. This example was the more salutary, as every thing in our situation tended to an excessive dissoluteness of manners. Our sudden and rapid prosperity was calculated to produce the greatest moral relaxation; and it is undeniable that the influence of the domestic life led by their Majesties powerfully contributed to check the torrent of corruption, which, from a vast accumulation of wealth, threatened to overflow the face of the country. In public her Majesty never tolerated any person in her presence, however high their rank, who had been guilty of any gross breach of those laws which refinement has introduced among men, for the preservation of society; of which the following anecdote is a striking instance:—The Countess of C—, a woman of high birth, ancient family, and great connexions, applied to a lady who was much about her Majesty's person, to beg her interference with the Queen, that her sister, who had committed a *faux pas*, and was divorced, might be allowed to go to the drawing-room, she having been married to the man against whom her former husband had obtained

damages. This was a very delicate task, and required great address, even to bring the subject before her in any shape. The lady, however, succeeded so far as to prefer the request. Her Majesty for that time turned the conversation, and it there ended: but, on the repeated solicitations of the countess, this lady, who was high in her Majesty's favour, again ventured to urge it; and, on receiving no reply, demanded of the Queen what it was her gracious pleasure she should say to the countess. "Tell her," said the Queen, "you had not the impudence to ask it." In her attendance on Divine worship her Majesty was very regular and exemplary. She was popular when Lord Bute's administration had rendered the King very much the reverse, and was considered with general regard as a domestic woman: so much so, that Colonel Barré, then a violent opposition speaker, delivered a very splendid eulogium on her "mild, tender, and unassuming virtues." When the King first betrayed symptoms of insanity, the ministry, in appointing a regency, proposed restrictions on the Regent, which raised a strong spirit of opposition. At this critical and delicate juncture, her Majesty's affections were divided between her consort and her son; but, with this exception, we do not know of any intermixture on her part with the politics of the day. Even Junius, who attacked the court with so much rancour, and who was not likely to have spared any branch of the royal family, is wholly silent as to her Majesty, except where he severely rebukes the late Duke of Grafton, the prime minister at that time, for having led his mistress through the Opera House, in the presence of the Queen. This rebuke is an additional proof of the high sense which that popular writer entertained of the purity of her Majesty's character,

and of the decorum which ought to have been observed in her presence. It has been said that she was penurious, if not avaricious: to her pecuniary affairs she was certainly very attentive, and it is not a little creditable to her that she was scrupulously so to the payment of her own tradesmen; but there are also many proofs of her disposition to assist distress, and to patronise merit. If, however, this charge of parsimony (an uncourtly one certainly, but the only one which has ever been seriously adduced) were even admitted against her, it must still be confessed that, in having never yielded, under any circumstances of palliation, to the admission of a convicted adulteress at her court—in having uniformly protected it from the contaminating influence of splendid vice—she has left behind her an example of rigid morality which it would be well for England if every future Queen should follow.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

AFTER the usual hustle of a general election, the new Parliament met on Thursday, the 14th of January, 1819, when, in the Upper House, Chief Baron Richards took his seat on the woolsack, by patent, *pro tempore*, in consequence of the lord-chancellor's indisposition. In the House of Commons Mr. Manners Sutton was unanimously elected speaker. Both Houses were occupied till the 21st in swearing in their respective members, on which day the session was regularly opened by commission, the lord-chancellor being sufficiently recovered to take his seat on the occasion. Of the royal speech, the main topics were, the King's health—the demise of the Queen—

the evacuation of France by the allied troops—the probability of a durable peace—the favourable state of the revenue—the improved aspect of trade, manufactures, and commerce—the favourable result of the war in India—and the conclusion of a treaty with the United States of America, for extending, to a further term of years, the existing commercial convention. In both Houses the usual addresses were agreed to without a division.

In conformity with an intimation in the speech, that the death of the Queen would render necessary the appointment of a new guardian of the King's person, the Earl of Liverpool, on the 25th of January, introduced a motion for the purpose of nominating the Duke of York to that office; and, after some discussion as to the patronage to be enjoyed by his royal highness, the bill was passed. Several interesting debates subsequently took place respecting the royal establishment at Windsor; the main point of which, that of granting 10,000*l.* a year to the Duke of York, as *custos* of the royal person, from the public, instead of from the privy purse, was carried by the committee only by 281 against 186. On another division, the numbers were 156 against 97. The subject also excited much freedom of remark, both in and out of Parliament.

The state of the criminal code, a topic deeply interesting to the best friends of humanity, occupied the attention of Parliament at an early part of the session. The astonishing variety and appalling multitude of offences, more than 200 in number, against which capital punishment was denounced by the statute-book, had long been reprobated by philanthropists, both foreign and native, as a national disgrace, and stigmatized, by philosophical lawyers, as a fruitful

source of mischief. It was the certainty, they remarked, rather than the severity of punishment, which tended to deter offenders; and those penalties which the general feeling of society condemned as incommensurate with offences were the most uncertain of being carried into effect. Principles such as these had repeatedly been brought before the House of Commons by Sir Samuel Romilly, who had proposed several bills founded upon them, one of which had passed into a law; but the melancholy loss of that distinguished and estimable individual, who prematurely terminated his own existence in the paroxysm of a fever brought on by the loss of a beloved wife, had now thrown the cause into other hands. A petition from the corporation of London, complaining of the increase of crime, and pointing out the commutation of capital punishment, was referred to a committee for the examination of the discipline and police of the different prisons throughout the country, the appointment of which was moved by Lord Castlereagh on the 1st of March. It was the opinion, however, of those who were well informed, and who felt deeply interested in the business, that, for the due consideration of so extensive as well as important a subject as the penal code, a distinct committee should be appointed; and to that effect Sir James Macintosh made a motion on the following day. After adducing a variety of excellent observations, and a number of striking facts, illustrating the system of subterfuge which the dreadful severity of the law in many cases had produced amongst prosecutors, witnesses, and jurors, and the consequent impunity and increase of crime, he proceeded to explain his particular views of melioration, observing that it was by no means his wish or intention to form a new criminal

code : to abolish a system, admirable in its principles, interwoven with the habits of the people, and under which they had long and happily lived, was indeed very remote from his ideas of legislation. He did not even propose to abolish capital punishment : on the contrary, he held it to be a part of that right of self-defence with which societies were endowed : he considered it, like all other punishments, as an evil, when unnecessary, but capable, like them, of producing, when sparingly and judiciously inflicted, a preponderance of good. He aimed not at the establishment of any universal principle : his sole object was, that the execution of the law should constitute the majority, and the remission the minority, of cases. Sir James subsequently divided capital felonies into three classes : those on which the punishment of death was *always*, those on which it was *frequently*, and those on which it was *never* put in force. He proposed to leave, for the present, the first and second divisions untouched : the third, consisting of no fewer than 150 different crimes, ought, he conceived, to be entirely expunged from the list, as so many relics of barbarous times, disgraceful to the character of a free, a thinking, and an enlightened nation. Lord Castlereagh complimented the candid and moderate spirit in which Sir James Macintosh had brought forward his motion : notwithstanding which, he persisted in opposing, as unnecessary, the appointment of a separate committee. Other members, however, warmly supported the proposal, which was ultimately carried by 147 voices against 128 ; and, before the close of the session, Sir James had the satisfaction of reporting progress as chairman.

A motion by Mr. Tierney, on the 2d of February, for a committee to inquire into the effects of the

restriction on cash payments by the Bank, was met by an amendment proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, directing an investigation into the state of the Bank of England with reference to the expediency of the resumption of cash payments at the fixed period; such information to be reported by the committee as might be disclosed without injury to the public interests. The first report was brought up by Mr. Peel on the 5th of April: it represented that the Bank, having been induced to pay in specie all notes issued prior to 1817, had been drained of cash to the amount of upwards of 5,000,000*l.* most of which had found its way to the Continent, and been there re-coined into foreign money; and that, to prevent a continuance of this drain, and to enable the Bank to accumulate a greater quantity of bullion, with a view to the final resumption of cash payment, it was expedient to restrain the further payment of the notes alluded to in specie. A bill was accordingly brought in, and, the standing orders of the House having been suspended, was passed through all its stages the same evening. In the course of the discussion, Mr. Manning, the Bank director, attributed the drain upon the Bank, and the passage of our specie to the Continent, to the French loan, and a deficient harvest, corn having been imported into this country to the amount of 10,000,000*l.* In the Upper House Lord Harrowby moved the suspension of the standing orders, that the bill might be passed through all its stages at one sitting, which Earl Grey and others opposed at considerable length, contending that, if necessary, it would have been better for ministers to issue an order of council for suspending the Bank payments, on their own responsibility: on the following day, however, the bill was read three times, and passed. A similar

measure was also carried for the protection of the Bank of Ireland. The second report was presented on the 5th of May; and, after an attentive examination of the subject in all its bearings, two bills were passed, founded on a plan, recommended by the committee, for the gradual return to cash payments, and of which the principal provisions were, that a definite period should be fixed for the termination of the restriction, and that preparatory measures should be taken, with a view to facilitate and insure, on the arrival of that period, the payment of the promissory notes of the Bank of England in the legal coin of the realm; that provision ought to be made for the gradual repayment of the sum of 10,000,000*l.*, being part of the sum due to the Bank on account of advances for the public service; that, from the 1st of February, 1820, the Bank shall be liable to deliver, on demand, gold of standard fineness, having been assayed and stamped at the mint, a quantity of not less than sixty ounces being required, in exchange for notes at the rate of 4*l.* 1*s.* per ounce; that, from the 1st of October, 1820, the Bank shall be liable to deliver gold at the rate of 3*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* per ounce, and from the 1st of May, 1821, 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.*; that the Bank may, at any period between the 1st of February and the 1st of October, 1820, undertake to deliver gold, as before mentioned, at any rate between the sums of 4*l.* 1*s.* and 3*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* per ounce; and, at any period between the 1st of October, 1820, and the 1st of May, 1821, at any rate between the sums of 3*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.* and 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* per ounce; but that, such intermediate rate having been once fixed by the Bank, that rate shall not be subsequently increased; that, from the 1st of May, 1823, the Bank shall pay its notes, on demand, in the legal coin of the realm; and that it is expedient to repeal

the laws prohibiting the melting and the exportation of the coin.

Another select committee was appointed, on the motion of Lord Castlereagh, to inquire into the income and expenditure of the country, from which he anticipated a most favourable result. The receipts for the year ending the 5th of January, 1818, were 51,665,458*l.*; while those for the following year were 54,062,000*l.*, showing an increase upon the latter of 2,397,000*l.*; but there were certain arrears of war duties on malt and property, which reduced the income of 1818 to 49,334,927*l.* while the arrears to January, 1819, amounted only to 566,639*l.* The expenditure was also less by about 650,000*l.* than was expected; and the result was, his lordship said, a total surplus of 3,558,000*l.* applicable to the reduction of the national debt. Allowing one million for the interest on the loan, there remained two millions and a half of surplus revenue. Mr. Tierney observed that an old debt upon the sinking fund of 8,300,000*l.*, which must be liquidated before one farthing of the surplus in question could be made available for the expenses of the current year, had been altogether thrown out of view. The various taxes, taken together, exceeded seven millions; but this was the extreme of the amount applicable to the army, the navy, the ordnance, and miscellaneous services: how, then, could it be possible, he asked, that, with an income of only seven millions, and an expenditure of twenty millions, both ends should be made to meet, and a surplus be left? and would it not be a gross delusion to speak of the sinking fund as applicable to the public service, while government were obliged to borrow thirteen millions a year to support it? The chancellor of the exchequer observed, that this statement in-

cluded certain particulars which could not be admitted in making a fair comparison. By taking the whole charge of the consolidated fund and the sinking fund, it had been shown that our expenditure considerably exceeded our receipts. This must necessarily be the case since so great a part of the war taxes had been abolished. Parliament had thought fit to relieve the country from fifteen millions of taxes, and thus they unavoidably prevented the effect which would have been produced in the redemption of the debt by these fifteen millions annually. With respect to any plans of finance for the present year, he should reserve to himself the power of adopting that which the situation of public affairs rendered most expedient.

On the 3d of June the chancellor of the exchequer submitted a series of financial resolutions, which stated that, by the removal of certain taxes, the revenue of Great Britain was reduced by 18,000,000*l.*; that the interest and charge of the funded and unfunded debt of Ireland exceeded the whole revenue of that country by 1,800,000*l.*; that it was necessary to provide, by a loan, or other means, for the service of the present year, the sum of 18,000,000*l.*, which, deducted from the sinking fund of 15,000,000*l.*, reduced it to only 2,000,000*l.*; and that, for the purpose of raising this sinking fund to 5,000,000*l.*, it was absolutely necessary to impose new taxes to the amount of 3,000,000*l.* annually. This sum Parliament ultimately agreed to raise by a considerable duty on foreign wool, and by smaller duties on various other articles, such as tobacco, tea, coffee, and cocoa-nuts. Two loans of 18,000,000*l.* each were also made; one of them supplied by the money market, the other derived from the sinking fund. Out of these sums there was to be a surplus, of which 5,000,000*l.* were to go towards

the repayment to the Bank recommended by Parliament previously to the resumption of cash payments, and 5,597,000*l.* to the reduction of the unfunded debt. "In adopting this course," observed the speaker, in his address to the Prince-regent, at the close of the session, "his Majesty's faithful Commons did not conceal from themselves that they were calling upon the nation for a great exertion; but, well knowing that honour and character, and independence, have at all times been the first and dearest objects of the hearts of Englishmen, we felt assured that there was no difficulty that the country would not encounter, and no pressure to which she would not cheerfully submit, to enable her to maintain, pure and unimpaired, that which has never yet been shaken or sullied—her public credit and her national good faith."

A trial of strength between ministers and their opponents took place, on the 18th of May, on Mr. Tierney's motion for a committee on the state of the nation. He proposed that Parliament should institute an inquiry into the political relations with foreign powers, the commercial arrangements with them, and the state of the finances; on all which points he contended that ministers had proved their incompetency, and that nothing but their removal would be satisfactory to the country at large. His motion was negatived by 357 votes against 178.

Numerous petitions having been presented to Parliament, both for and against the Catholic claims, this great question of internal policy was again brought before the House of Commons by Mr. Grattan on the 3d of May. The causes of disqualification, he observed, were of three kinds: 1. the combination of the Catholics, 2. the danger of a Pretender, 3. the power of the Pope. He insisted that not only all these causes

had ceased, but that the consequences annexed to them were no more; and concluded by moving for a committee of the whole House, to consider the state of the laws by which the oaths or declarations are required to be taken or made as qualifications for the enjoyment of offices and the exercise of civil functions, so far as the same affect Roman Catholics; and whether it would be expedient to alter or modify the same. The motion, which was seconded by Mr. Croker, was lost, on a division, by a majority of only two, the numbers being 243 against 241. On the 17th a corresponding motion was submitted to the Peers by the Earl of Donoughmore, who contended that the position of the Catholic question had been greatly changed. All anti-christian principles and uncharitable surmises were disallowed by its opponents; and the great objection was limited to an arguable supremacy, which was supposed inherent in a foreign state. If he were allowed to go into the committee, he would, after getting rid of the declaration, next dispose of the oath of supremacy, when there would remain no vestige of such tests, except the oath of abjuration, now of no practical use, as it aimed at a non-existent family. The Bishop of Worcester opposed the motion, on the ground of danger to the church and state. That danger, it was argued by the Bishop of Norwich, did not exist; and we ought to do unto others as we would that they should do unto us. The Bishop of Peterborough said that, if the present question were one merely of religion, it should have his support; but it was evident that the grand object of the Catholics was political power. The Earl of Liverpool argued that the concession would not operate to allay animosities in Ireland, and that the interests of the great mass of the people would not be affected by it.

in the smallest degree. The lord-chancellor also strenuously opposed the motion; chiefly on the ground that the Catholics could give no security, by oath, which could reconcile the King's supremacy, in things temporal, with the Pope's supremacy in things ecclesiastical. On a division, the motion was negatived by 147 against 106. Another effort in behalf of the Catholics was made in the Upper House by Earl Grey, who introduced a bill "for abrogating so much of the acts of the 25th and 30th of Charles the Second as prescribes to all officers, civil and military, and to members of both Houses of Parliament, a declaration against the doctrines of transubstantiation and the invocation of saints." The bill was allowed to proceed to the motion for its second reading, when it was thrown out by 141 against 82.

A most warm and persevering opposition was made to a bill which was brought in by the attorney-general on the 13th of May, for prohibiting the enlistment of British subjects into foreign service, and the equipment of vessels of war without license. The first of these objects, he observed, had been in some measure provided for by the statutes of George the Second, by which it was an offence amounting to felony to enter the service of any foreign state: if neutrality were to be observed, however, it was important that the penalty should be extended to the act of serving unacknowledged powers as well as acknowledged ones; and part of his intention, therefore, was to amend those statutes, by introducing, after the words "king, prince, state, potentate," the words "colony or district, who do assume the powers of a government." It was his wish, he said, merely to give to this country the right of preventing its subjects from breaking the neutrality towards acknowledged

states, and those assuming the power of states. Upon a similar principle, it was his desire to prevent the fitting out of armed vessels, and also the fitting out or supplying other vessels with warlike stores, in any of his Majesty's ports. Sir James Macintosh warned the House, that, in whatever manner the motion might be worded, and its real object concealed, the bill ought to be entitled—"A bill for preventing British subjects from lending their assistance to the South American cause, or enlisting in the South American service." He also stated the statutes of George the Second, adduced as authority on this occasion, not to have been laws of a general nature, applying to all times and circumstances, but, on the contrary, intended merely for the temporary purpose of preventing the formation of Jacobite armies organized in France and Spain, against the peace and tranquillity of England. Sir James concluded by reprobating a measure which was virtually an enactment to repress the liberty of the South Americans; and to enable Spain to reimpose that yoke of tyranny which they were unable to bear, which they had nobly shaken off, and from which he trusted in God they would finally, and for ever, be enabled to extricate themselves. Lord Castlereagh, deprecating the introduction of political topics, contended that the proposed bill was necessary in order to prevent our giving offence to Spain, whom that House, he observed, was too just and too generous to oppress, because she was weak and her fortunes had declined. Was not, he inquired, the proclamation which had been issued about eighteen months before approved both in England and America, as perfectly just in the principles of neutrality which it declared? Was it not, he also asked, a breach of that proclamation, when not only

individuals, whom, perhaps, it might have been impossible to restrain, not only officers in small numbers went out to join the insurrectionary corps, but when there was a regular organization of troops—when regiments regularly formed left England—when ships of war were fitted out in the English ports, and transports were chartered to carry out arms and ammunition? He felt some apology to be due to the House for not sooner bringing forward such a measure; but, as long as any hope remained of a mediation between Spain and her colonies, he had been unwilling to speak of the policy of the existing laws; and it was but lately that such hopes had been entirely dispelled. In the subsequent stages of the bill, ministers candidly avowed that the measure had been suggested by the stipulations of a treaty with Spain, in the year 1814, and by the representations which the ministers of Ferdinand the Seventh had considered themselves as entitled, by such stipulations, to address to the British government. This admission excited some severe comments on the character of Ferdinand the Seventh. At length, however, the bill was carried in the Lower House by 190 against 129; and in the Peers by 100 against 49.

A bill was introduced into the House of Commons, on the 11th of May, for enabling the public to accept the Marquis Camden's magnificent sacrifice of the surplus profits accruing from his unreduced tellership of the exchequer, from which the country had already derived 45,000*l.* The surplus income of his office, amounting during peace to about 9000*l.* a year, he was desirous of giving up; but, doubts having arisen whether this donation might not be considered as an illegal benevolence, it became necessary to bring in this bill, a former act, authorizing contributions by his

Majesty's ministers and other public officers, having expired. This voluntary relinquishment of a patent office, which had always been considered as a legal estate, was much and deservedly extolled.

On the 1st of July Sir Francis Burdett moved that the House should, early in the next session, take into consideration the state of the representation in Parliament. He did not expect, he said, that the proposed resolution would be immediately followed by any specific measure, but it would tend to tranquillize the public mind, which ought to be tranquillized, that the people might give no pretence to ministers for again proposing the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act. On a division, the motion was rejected.

An act of grace, on the part of the Prince-regent, for reversing the attainder of Lord Edward Fitzgerald, by which the blood of his two children had become corrupted, was passed without opposition. The preamble of the bill stated that his lordship had never been brought to trial; that the act of attainder did not pass the Irish parliament till some months after his decease; and that these were sufficient reasons for mitigating the severity of a measure decreed in unhappy and unfortunate times.

Mr. Wilberforce complained that two great powers had hitherto shown a reluctance to enter into the arrangements necessary for carrying into effect the total abolition of the slave-trade. It grieved him to cast this reproach on a great and high-minded people like the French; and he was still more hurt to find that America was not free from blame. He trusted that all nations would cordially combine in ensuring to the inhabitants of Africa a progress in civilization equal to that of the other quarters of the world; and he concluded by moving an address, entreating the

Prince-regent to renew his endeavours, especially with the governments of France and of the United States, for the attainment of an object so generally interesting. The address was agreed to unanimously; and a similar one was voted in the House of Lords, on the motion of the Marquis of Lansdown.

The sum of 50,000*l.* was granted, on the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, for the purpose of enabling government to divert the current of emigration from the United States to the Cape of Good Hope; the colony to which it was considered that it might be most advantageously directed. It was proposed to pay the expense of the passage, and to afford to the emigrant the means of exercising his industry on arriving at the destined spot. A small advance of money would be required from each settler before embarking, to be repaid him in necessaries at the Cape, by which means, and the assistance afforded by government, he would be furnished with a comfortable subsistence until he gathered his crops, which, in that climate, were of rapid growth.

The session, which had been of a nature more than usually busy, was closed, by the Prince-regent in person, on the 13th of July. The royal speech expressed a confident expectation that the measures which had been adopted for the resumption of cash payments would be productive of the most beneficial consequences; regretted the necessity of additional taxation; anticipated important permanent advantages from the efforts which had been made to meet our financial difficulties; and, in adverting to the seditious spirit which was abroad in the manufacturing districts, avowed a firm determination to employ the powers provided by law for its suppression.

About this time a party which had received the

distinguishing appellation of *Radical Reformers* obtained much notice by their active exertions among the lower orders, chiefly of the manufacturing classes. One of their first steps was an application to the magistrates of Manchester to convoke a meeting, for the alleged purpose of petitioning against the corn bill, which was refused; and, in consequence, the meeting was summoned by an anonymous advertisement. Mr. Hunt, who had been selected as the hero of the day, was conducted to the place of meeting, by an immense multitude, in a sort of triumphal procession, and a strong remonstrance to the Prince-regent was adopted: the assemblage, however, dispersed without tumult. This meeting was followed by many others of a similar nature at Glasgow, Leeds, Stockport, and other manufacturing neighbourhoods: the strong measures of precaution, however, that were taken by the respective local authorities, had, in most instances, the effect of preserving order and tranquillity, though there was a marked contrast between the peaceable demeanour of the auditors and the inflammatory character of the language in which they were addressed. In the speeches delivered on these occasions, the want of a true representation of the people was pronounced to be the grand source of all our evils; for which annual parliaments, universal suffrage, and election by ballot, were pointed out as the only cure. At one of these meetings there was a discussion whether the people had a right to destroy the Bank of England; and some suggestions were thrown out as to the expediency of a division of landed property, and a recurrence to physical force. By some, however, it was contended that these suggestions, which, happily, produced no practical results, were made by spies; and it is not improbable that the agents of

government, whose duty could not legitimately extend beyond the office of observing and faithfully reporting the proceedings which took place at these meetings, might occasionally exceed their instructions. One novel and censurable feature of the system was the formation, in Lancashire, of female reform societies. These bodies entered into violent resolutions, and called upon the wives and daughters of manufacturers in different branches to form sister societies, for the purpose of co-operating with the men, and of instilling into their children *a deep-rooted hatred of our tyrannical rulers.*

At Birmingham, where the extensive and almost general distress of the working classes had given greater currency to the new doctrines, the radical reformers hazarded a bolder experiment than any they had before displayed. This was the election of a member, or, as it was denominated at the time, a *legislatorial attorney*, to represent that great and populous town in the House of Commons. At a meeting, holden for this purpose on the 12th of July, the managers stated that, the issue of a writ being compulsory, they had not thought it necessary to wait for a mandate on this occasion; but that, in the exercise of their constitutional rights, and of the duty of good subjects, they should proceed to advise the sovereign by their representative. Sir Charles Wolseley, who had previously declared his resolution to claim his seat, should he be elected, was put in nomination, and instantly chosen by a show of hands; not fewer than 15,000 persons being present, and apparently concurring in this unprecedented proceeding.

A few days after this performance had been acted, it was resolved, at a meeting in the great unrepresented town of Leeds, that a similar election should

take place as soon as an eligible member should be found. The government, at length, deemed it expedient to interfere. Sir Charles Wolseley was taken into custody, on account of seditious expressions used at a meeting at Stockport, in Cheshire; and an itinerant preacher, of the name of Harrison, for a similar offence at the same place, was soon afterwards arrested, while he was attending a reform meeting in London. On these charges Sir Charles Wolseley and Harrison were next year tried at the assizes, convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment.

The Smithfield meeting, at which Harrison was arrested, took place, agreeably to previous announcement, on the 21st of July. Some degree of alarm was naturally felt by the inhabitants of the metropolis on this occasion; and, for the purpose of preventing riot or disorder, very extensive and judicious precautions were taken, not only by the government, but by the lord-mayor and the police. Mr. Hunt was elected to the chair, and a number of resolutions were passed, to the effect that, as the persons at present composing the House of Commons had not been fairly chosen, the meeting could not consider themselves bound in equity by any of their enactments, after the ensuing January. When the officers took Harrison a few voices proposed resistance, on which Hunt requested them to let him go quietly. "If they apprehend me," said he, "I am ready with bail, and will try the question with them. Let me subpoena all of you here; and then, though they may get three villains to swear away my life, I shall not be afraid when I have 50,000 witnesses to contradict them. If only thirty of you should come day by day, the trial will last for three years!" The remonstrance to the Prince-regent, which had been agreed to at a meeting in Palace-yard, West-

minuter, on the 8th of September, 1818, was again adopted, and numerous speeches followed; in the course of which Mr. Hunt stated that the penny subscriptions to promote the cause of reform, which had been calculated to create, in a year, a fund of 256,000*l.* amounted, at the expiration of ten months, to only 4*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* This enormous assemblage finally separated without tumult.

On the third night following an atrocious attempt was made at Stockport to assassinate Birch, the deputy constable for that township, an officer by whose exertions both Sir Charles Wolseley and Mr. Harrison had been apprehended. Vigorous measures were immediately adopted by government for the discovery of the offenders; and, on the 30th of July, a proclamation against seditious meetings was issued.

The Manchester reformers, who had posted up notices of a meeting, to be holden on the 9th of August, for the purpose of proceeding to the election of a representative, as at Birmingham, were informed by the magistrates that, as the object of the proposed assemblage was unquestionably illegal, it would not be suffered to take place. In consequence of this determination, they relinquished the design; and issued notices of a meeting, for the avowedly legal object of petitioning for a reform in parliament, on the 10th of August. An open space in the town, called St. Peter's Field, was selected as the place of assembly; and never, upon any former occasion of a similar nature, was so great a number of persons known to be present. Some hours before the proceedings were to commence, large bodies began to march in from the neighbouring towns and villages, formed five deep, many of them armed with stout staves, and preserving a military regularity of step. Each body had its own

banner, bearing a motto; and, under a white silk flag, two clubs of female reformers appeared. The numbers collected were estimated at 60,000. A band of special constables, stationed on the ground, disposed themselves so as to form a line of communication from a house where the magistrates were sitting to the stage or waggon fixed for the orators. Soon after the business of the meeting had been opened, a body of yeomanry cavalry entered the ground, and advanced with drawn swords to the stage; their commanding officer called to Mr. Hunt, who was speaking, and told him that he was his prisoner. Mr. Hunt, after enjoining the people to be tranquil, said that he would readily surrender to any civil officer who should exhibit his warrant; and he was taken into custody by a constable. Several other persons were apprehended. Some of the yeomanry now cried out, "Have at their flags!" and they began to strike down the banners in the waggon, as well as others which were raised in various parts of the field. A scene of dreadful confusion arose; numbers were trampled under the feet of men and horses; many persons, even females, were cut down by sabres; some were killed, and the number of maimed and wounded amounted to between 3 and 400. In a very short time the ground was cleared of its former occupants, and military patrols were stationed in the principal streets of the town to preserve tranquillity.

Much difference of opinion has ever since prevailed on this subject; and, perhaps, the Manchester meeting is one of those events, upon which, in all its variety of details, historians will never be found to agree. Whether the riot act were actually read is still a moot point: the reformers and their friends insist that it was not; the magistrates and their adherents contend that it was. Probability seems to favour the latter

opinion; and certainly the affirmative of a proposition is more easily established than its negative. The whole appears to have taken place within ten minutes, by which time the field was entirely cleared of its recent occupiers, and filled with different corps of infantry and cavalry. Hunt and his colleagues were, after a short examination before the magistrates, conducted to solitary cells, on a charge of high treason. On the following day notices were issued by the magistrates, by which the practice of military training, alleged to have been carried on in secret, by large bodies of men, for treasonable purposes, was declared to be illegal. Public thanks were, by the same authority, returned to the officers and men of the respective corps engaged in the attack; and, on the arrival in London of a despatch from the local authorities, a cabinet council was held, the result of which was the return of official letters of thanks to the magistrates, for their prompt, decisive, and efficient measures for the preservation of the public tranquillity; and to all the military engaged, for the support and assistance afforded by them to the civil power.

For some days the town of Manchester and its neighbourhood were in a state of constrained quietness, although some further disturbances, in which one or two lives were lost, had taken place. Five days after the Manchester affair, a meeting, convened by public advertisement, was held at the Crown and Anchor, in London, for the alleged purpose of expressing the public feeling on that deplored event. Mr. Wooler proposed a string of resolutions, strongly censuring the conduct of the magistrates and military; and returning thanks to Hunt and his colleagues, which were unanimously carried; as was also a resolution to raise a subscription for defraying the expenses

of counsel, &c. in defence of the prisoners. In the same spirit a meeting was, three or four days afterwards, holden in Smithfield. Sir Francis Bardett also addressed a violent letter to the electors of Westminster upon the occasion, for the writing of which letter, as a libel, he was afterwards tried and convicted.

In pursuance of Sir Francis Bardett's letter, an immense multitude assembled in Palace-yard, Westminster, on the 2d of September, for the purpose of declaring an opinion on the conduct of the magistrates and yeomanry of Manchester. After inflammatory speeches, occupying three hours in their delivery, by Sir Francis Bardett, and Mr. Hobhouse, his colleague in the representation of Westminster, several violent resolutions were adopted, declaring the assemblage at Manchester a lawful meeting; that the outrage on that occasion was an attempt to destroy by the sword the few remaining liberties of Englishmen, and that it was another lamentable consequence of the want of a real representation; and an address to the Prince-regent, founded thereon, was unanimously agreed to.

The circumstances of the Manchester case turned out to be such, that government, by the advice of the law officers of the crown, found it expedient to abandon the threatened prosecution of Mr. Hunt and his colleagues for high treason. Those persons were accordingly informed that they would be proceeded against for a conspiracy only, which might be bailed; but Mr. Hunt refused to give bail, even, as he said, to the amount of a single farthing: some of his friends, however, liberated him. On his return from Lancaster to Manchester, Hunt was drawn about two miles by women, and ten by men. In fact, his return was one long triumphal procession, waited upon by thou-

sands, on horse, on foot, and in carriages, who hailed him with continued shouts of applause.

The grand jury of Lancaster found true bills against Hunt, Johnson, and Moorhouse, and the others who were committed with them on the charge of conspiracy. The prisoners availed themselves of the privilege of traversing till the spring assizes of 1820; and, instead of Lancaster, the trial took place at York. After ten days' duration it closed on the 10th of April, 1820, when the jury declared Hunt, Johnson, Knight, Healy, and Bamford, guilty of assembling with unlawful banners an assembly, for the purpose of moving and inciting the liege subjects of our sovereign lord the King into contempt and hatred of the government and constitution of the realm, as by law established, and attending at the same. In the ensuing term Hunt and his associates received sentence: Hunt to be imprisoned in the gaol of Ilchester two years and six months, and, at the termination of that period, to find securities for his good behaviour for five years; and Johnson, Bamford, and Healy, to be imprisoned each one year in Lincoln Castle, and also to find sureties for good behaviour.

Having pursued this extraordinary affair to its close, we return to the proceedings of the reformers, who, notwithstanding the tragical results of the Manchester meeting, still ventured to assemble, as before, at Leeds, Glasgow, and other towns. At those meetings the conduct of the Manchester magistrates and yeomanry was the prominent theme: ensigns of mourning were exhibited; horrible details were given of the barbarous acts alleged to have been committed by the yeomanry; and the sufferers of the 16th of August were eulogized as martyrs, and their memory classed with that of Russell, Hampden, Sidney, and other illu-

trious names of ancient times. On few, however, if any of these occasions, where the local authorities refrained from interposing, did any breach of the peace ensue; but at Paisley, &c. where the flags of the radicals were seized by the magistrates, on their return from the meeting, some riots occurred, which, fortunately, were quelled without bloodshed.

The regular opposition, or whig party, throughout the kingdom, seized with avidity upon the solemn approval which had been given by government, so hastily, as they said, to an illegal act of power.

On this occasion numerous meetings were held; most of which were numerously, and some very respectably, attended. A large meeting of the county of York was sanctioned by the presence of Earl Fitzwilliam, the lord-lieutenant of the west riding, and by that of many other noblemen and gentlemen of high consideration, who delivered their sentiments in very strong and animated language; and the petition to the Prince-regent which was adopted at this meeting called loudly for inquiry. In consequence of this proceeding, Earl Fitzwilliam was dismissed from his lord-lieutenancy; an incident which excited much surprise, and was strongly animadverted upon. An address of the corporation of London, also calling for inquiry, received from the Prince-regent an oblique, but not evasive, reply. "With the circumstances which preceded the late meeting at Manchester," said his Royal Highness, "you must be unacquainted; and with those which attended it you appear to have been incorrectly informed. If, however, the laws were really violated on that occasion, by those to whom it immediately belonged to assist in the execution of them, the tribunals of this country are open to afford redress; but to institute an extrajudicial inquiry, under

such circumstances as the present, would be manifestly inconsistent with the clearest principles of justice."

To counteract these meetings, loyal addresses, and offers for the raising of yeomanry corps, were zealously promoted by the friends of government. A veteran battalion of between 10 and 11,000 men was also formed from the Chelsea pensioners.

At Lancaster the grand jury threw out all the bills which had been preferred against individuals by the sufferers of the 16th of August. At Oldham, eight miles from Manchester, the coroner's inquest sat for many days on the body of John Lees, one of the unfortunate men alleged to have lost his life in consequence of injuries received on that memorably fatal day. Great tumult was excited on this occasion: the inquest was, in consequence, adjourned to Manchester, where it occupied some weeks; but the whole proceedings were set aside, on the ground of informality, by the Court of King's Bench.

Amidst the general ferment which had been produced by these circumstances, the meeting of Parliament was impatiently awaited by all parties, and it assembled on the 23d of November. "I regret to have been under the necessity," observed the Prince-regent, in the opening speech, "of calling you together at this period of the year; but the seditious practices so long prevalent in some of the manufacturing districts of the country have been continued, with increased activity, since you were last assembled in Parliament. They have led to proceedings incompatible with the public tranquillity, and with the peaceful habits of the industrious classes of the community; and a spirit is now fully manifested, utterly hostile to the constitution of this kingdom, and aiming not only at the change of those political institutions which have hitherto constituted

the pride and security of this country; but at the subversion of the rights of property and of all order in society. I have given directions that the necessary information on this subject shall be laid before you; and I feel it to be my indispensable duty to press on your immediate attention the consideration of such measures as may be requisite for the counteraction and suppression of a system, which, if not effectually checked, must bring confusion and ruin on the nation."

In the Upper House an amendment to the address was moved by Earl Grey, in which, whilst the necessity of checking any practices dangerous to the laws and constitution was fully admitted, his lordship expressed a strong opinion as to the expediency and necessity of conciliation and of inquiry into the transactions of Manchester, for the purpose of allaying the feelings to which they had given birth, and of satisfying the people that the lives of his Majesty's subjects could not be sacrificed with impunity. Lord Sidmouth said that to the transactions at Manchester more exaggeration, misrepresentation, and falsehood had been applied, than to any other public transaction in his knowledge. The magistrates, many of them independent gentlemen of the highest character, had every ground for suspicion against the persons who marched in military array with banners, and pikes bloody at the heads, to the place of meeting. There was yet stronger ground of presumption in favour of the magistrates: to that day no prosecution had been instituted against them. He denied that the yeomanry had acted with violence or intemperance; they had merely done their duty in aid of the civil power. It was the opinion of the greatest authorities that the meeting of the 16th was not only illegal, and even treasonable, but that the conduct of the magistrates was per-

factly justifiable; and then the letter in approbation of it was written. He would not enter into the grounds for dispensing with the services of Earl Fitzwilliam; but that nobleman had taken a part which rendered it impossible that any confidence could subsist between him and the government. After an animated discussion, in which the necessity of inquiry was strenuously maintained by the opposition, peers, and as strenuously resisted by the supporters of administration, the House divided—for the original address, 120; against it, 34.

In the Lower House a similar amendment was moved by Mr. Tierney with similar success. He drew a melancholy picture of the state of the country, which, he affirmed, the glaring misconduct of ministers had brought to the very verge of despair. The great mass of the people felt, with discontent and indignation, that the present state of the representation was not favourable to their interest; the diffusion of education, which had been sanctioned by the legislature itself, had exposed Parliament to criticism on all its proceedings. If government thought, he said, that, by passing new laws, by raising additional regiments, or by the promulgation of loyal addresses, they could put down the awakened and excited spirit of the country, they would find themselves deplorably in error. Lord Castlereagh justified the means which had been taken for the dispersion of the assemblage at Manchester, and contended that, previously to the interference of the military power, three attempts had been made to read the riot act.

On the succeeding day the promised documents respecting the state of popular feeling were produced: they consisted, in part, of the correspondence of official persons with the home secretary; and, in part, of communications to such persons, made by individuals

whose names were withheld. Such of the letters of the Manchester magistrates as had been written previously to the 16th of August expressed apprehensions that a formidable insurrection was in contemplation: at the same time they bore testimony to the deep distresses of the manufacturing classes, and assigned hunger as the natural cause of the willingness of the poor to listen to any wild or mischievous proposal that might be made for the melioration of their sufferings. It was stated, in numerous depositions, that the practice of secret military training prevailed to a very great extent among the reformers; but, in some cases, it appeared that nothing more had been intended by these men than to enable themselves to march in the semblance of military array to their meetings; and further it was shown that sticks were the only weapons which had been employed in the exercise of drilling. A statement from Lord Fitzwilliam, on the state of the west riding of the county of York, represented that the last reform meeting on Hunslet Moor had been less numerously attended than the former ones, and intimated that the rage for holding such meetings might safely be left to die away of itself. Sir John Byng, the military commander of the district, stated that simultaneous meetings were to have been undoubtedly held at many neighbouring towns, which he named, but that the plan had been frustrated by division amongst the leaders. The distress and discontent of the people of the west riding of Yorkshire, where pistols, pikes, and other offensive weapons, were reported to be manufacturing in considerable quantities, formed the subject of some of these communications and similar representations from the south-west of Scotland, where employment and wages had fallen off in a still more deplorable

degree, were afforded by others. The grand jury of Cheshire, where active measures of terror and intimidation had, for some time, prevailed, also expressed the alarm which was felt for their lives and properties by the loyal part of the King's subjects.

The lord-chancellor introduced a bill, on the 20th, which, he said, did not arise out of the circumstances of the times, but had been contemplated by him long ago. It had been the practice of the courts to allow defendants, in cases of information or indictments, to implead or traverse. As great inconvenience had arisen from this practice—as trials were sometimes delayed till a very remote period—and as the ends of justice might thus be defeated, the bill would take away from a defendant the right of traversing; allowing the court, however, to postpone his trial upon his showing ground for the delay. Earl Grey at once entered his protest against the whole of the measures, which, as it appeared, were in preparation, as calculated to bring the greatest misery, if not ruin, upon the country. On the second reading Earl Grosvenor contended that, whilst the attorney-general was allowed to hold informations over the heads of defendants for an indefinite length of time, to abolish the right of traverse was greatly enhancing the grievance. Lord Erskine also objected to the measure, as depriving the people of an ancient and important privilege. On the other hand, it was contended by the Earl of Liverpool, that, if their lordships did not pass this bill, they had better at once declare that, in future, every description of sedition and blasphemy should be invested with full toleration. Lord Holland urged that, in fairness, the measure ought to be so ordered as to legislate on both sides, by preventing the delays which occurred by prosecutions on ex-

officio informations, as well as by those of indictment; and, agreeably to this suggestion, the lord-chancellor, on the third reading, proposed an additional clause, compelling the attorney-general to bring a defendant to trial within a year, or to enter a *noli prosequi*. The bill, thus amended, was agreed to without further opposition.

The other bills, alluded to by Lord Erskine, were introduced on the same evening by Lord Sidmouth in the Upper, and by Lord Castlereagh in the Lower House. They were to the following effect:—An act to render the publication of a blasphemous or seditious libel punishable, on a second conviction, at the discretion of the court, by fine, imprisonment, banishment, or transportation; and to give power, in cases of a second conviction, to seize the copies of the libel in possession of the publisher: a stamp duty, equal to that paid by newspapers, on all publications of less than a given number of sheets, with an obligation on all publishers of such pieces to enter into recognizances for the payment of such penalties as might in future be inflicted on them. The press being thus restrained, seditious meetings were to be controlled by the following provisions:—That a requisition for the holding of any meeting, other than those regularly called by a sheriff, boroughreeve, or other magistrate, should be signed by seven householders; and that it should be illegal for any persons, not inhabitants of the place in which such meeting was held, to attend it; also, that magistrates should be empowered, within certain limitations, to appoint the time and place of meeting. To repel danger from the mustering of an illegal force, it was proposed to prohibit military training, except under the authority of a magistrate or lieutenant of a county; and, in the dis-

urbed districts, to give to magistrates the power of seizing arms believed to be collected for unlawful purposes, and also to apprehend and detain persons so carrying arms. The only one of these bills which passed without opposition, from a generally acknowledged sense of its expediency under the existing circumstances of the country, was that for the prevention of secret military training. The bill for the seizure of arms, which, under certain circumstances, and in particular districts, authorized search to be made in private houses, by day or night, was strenuously resisted in both Houses; and, upon an amendment for omitting the words "or night," the House of Commons divided—Ayes 46, Noes 158. A clause of the blasphemous and seditious libel bill, by which offenders were, upon a second conviction, subjected to the punishment of transportation, passed the House of Lords, but ministers found it expedient to withdraw it in the Commons. The penalty of banishment, however, which had been previously unknown to the English law, was allowed to be enacted. In its progress, the seditious meeting bill was subjected to a modification, by which all meetings, held in any room or building, were exempted from its operation. Several limitations of the bill for subjecting small publications to the newspaper stamp duty were also introduced.

On the following evening the Marquis of Lansdowne moved for a select committee to inquire into the state of the nation, and more especially of those which were called disturbed districts. The principle called radiation, his lordship said, existed in exactly the same proportion as that of distress in the respective districts. He had a right to infer this from the agricultural part of the country being yet untainted, and

from the spirit of radicalism having reached its height in the cotton manufacturing districts of both England and Scotland. The distress arose from the long war, which gave us the whole carrying trade of the world; which created a fixed capital that still existed; and filled the markets without the possibility of finding a vent for them. The distress was also increased by the poor laws, the paper currency, and the spirit of excessive speculation. Adverting to the expedients which had been proposed for the alleviation of distress by the advancement of temporary loans to encourage labour, he said there were two other points of a more extended nature: one was to take off duties on articles which had considerably decreased in various districts—such as tea, which had been greatly reduced in consumption, and was subject to much smuggling from America and other parts; the other point was the establishment of favourable commercial treaties, which the Prince-regent's government had not yet succeeded in accomplishing. He alluded, in particular, to the timber trade with Norway, which, he said, had been neglected; to encourage the growth of an inferior article in Canada, which prevented Norway taking in return many of our articles of commerce. The Marquis Wellesley deprecated the seditious designs and views of the reformers; and thought the discussion of the restriction bills ought to be proceeded with in preference to any inquiry. Lord Epskine contended that the country was by no means in so alarming a state as at the time of the state trials in 1794. The existing laws were sufficient to remove the evils complained of, and to punish the guilty. He ridiculed the evidence which appeared in the papers lately laid before Parliament, with a view to prove a treasonable or seditious meeting at Manchester, and contended

that there was nothing illegal in marching to a place of public meeting. Lord Grenville could not consider the designs as originating in the distress, which, he hoped, was only temporary. Such distress gave facilities to factious men which they otherwise would not possess; but the root of the evil lay much deeper. The promoters of the new system here, taking the French revolution as their model, had deluged the country with blasphemous publications. On the Manchester occasion he considered the conduct of the magistrates to have been not only free from blame, but highly meritorious. The motion was negatived, after considerable discussion, by 148 against 47.

Unfavourable as the time appeared for a discussion on parliamentary reform, Lord John Russell was not deterred from calling the attention of the House of Commons to the unrepresented towns, many of which had risen into great commercial wealth and importance, while certain boroughs had sunk into decay, and had become unfit to enjoy the privilege of sending representatives. He adduced examples, from the history of Parliament, to show that the principle of change had been often acknowledged, and the suffrage withdrawn and conferred on various occasions. After explaining his views he proposed several resolutions, tending to establish the principle of change which he had laid down, and some rules respecting the voters of disfranchised places, on whom corruption should not have been proved. The last resolution was for the disfranchisement of the borough of Grampound, the corruption of which had already been proved to the House. On the suggestion of Lord Castlereagh, who manifested a willingness to concur in the objects of the motion to a certain degree, Lord John Russell withdrew it, and a few days afterwards brought in a

bill, for the disfranchisement of Grampound, and the transfer of its representation to some populous town. The second reading of this bill was deferred by his lordship until after the Christmas recess.

Much animadversion was excited in the political circles by the fulfilment of a convention concluded, in 1815, between Great Britain and Turkey, by which the fortress and territory of Parga, on the western coast of Greece, then protected by the British flag, were to be ceded to the Porte, under a stipulation that those inhabitants who chose to emigrate should receive an indemnification for the fixed property which they would be compelled to abandon. This spirited people were the last of the free Christian Greeks of Epirus who had resisted the intrigues and aggressions of Ali Pacha: in 1807, after the treaty of Tilsit, had given the Ionian Isles to Buonaparte, they had solicited and obtained a French garrison from Corfu; and in 1814 they had placed themselves under British protection. Finding the fate of their country irrevocable, they all chose to emigrate, rather than expose themselves to the vindictive malignity of the Turks; and an estimate was made of their buildings, lands, and plantations, amounting to nearly 500,000*l.*; but the compensation ultimately obtained for them was less than a third of that sum.

In a more distant quarter discussions arose which likewise exposed the foreign policy of England to severe criticism. Availing themselves of certain defects in the treaty for the restoration of Java, the Dutch commissioners committed various aggressions in the Malayan Archipelago, and particularly against the Sultan of Palembang, which drew forth a strong protest from the British functionary, Sir Thomas Raffles, directed against the whole political system

acted upon by those commissioners, as being exclusively suited to the views of their own government; and hostile to existing engagements with the native princes.

The United States, by a treaty signed at Washington in February, obtained from Spain the cession of the Floridas. This treaty Ferdinand the Seventh declined to ratify, but intimated his intention of sending a confidential minister to ask explanations. The American government continued to adhere to its neutral policy in regard to the contest between Spain and her colonies. Chili, having confided its maritime force to Lord Cochrane, as vice-admiral, was enabled to carry on an offensive war against Spain by sea, and for some time to place the coast of Peru in a state of blockade. In New Granada Bolívar obtained some splendid advantages over the royalist general, Morillo. The adventurer Macgregor, who was not avowed by any of the republics, seized Porto Bello, but was soon afterwards compelled to seek safety in a precipitate flight. In Spain the interests of Ferdinand the Seventh were in some degree strengthened by the death of his father at Rome, whose restoration had been contemplated by the liberal party: the spirit of disaffection, nevertheless, spread rapidly through all classes of society, and especially among the military. The discovery of another plot at Valencia led to many severe acts of vengeance; and, to increase the woes of this distracted country, the yellow fever broke out at Cadix, and extended its ravages to Seville, and other towns in the south. Ferdinand the Seventh, who had become a widower, contracted a marriage with a princess of Saxony; but their nuptials were followed by no act of grace in favour of the exiled patriots, nor by

any relaxation of the tyranny which oppressed the Spanish nation.

In France considerable agitation was created by a proposal, in the upper chamber of the legislature, for changing the election law. To secure a preponderance against the ultra royalist party, who favoured this measure, the king had recourse to an extraordinary exertion of the prerogative, in the creation of 54 new peers, and the recall of 20 of the number erased from the list by the ordinance of 1816. Public opinion was decidedly hostile to this violation of so important an article of the charter as that relating to elections, and it was ultimately abandoned. The discussions which led to this result had the effect of exciting disturbances at Nîmes, which threatened to renew the persecution of the Protestants; and, after the defeat of the ultras, it was necessary to send an armed force into that city to preserve tranquillity.

In Germany the progress of reform was not unattended with commotion; and Kotzebue, a dramatic writer of eminence, who was denounced by one party as an apostate from the cause of liberty, was stabbed to the heart by a young fanatic. Numerous arrests took place in various parts, and the diet at Frankfort appointed a general central commission at Mentz, with authority to prosecute inquiries, to examine witnesses, to cause the arrest of suspected persons, and to take into its own hands the punishment of political offenders. This commission was composed of delegates from Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Hanover, Baden, Hesse, and Nassau. Prussia entered with peculiar zeal into these severe measures for preventing the diffusion of democratical doctrines, and new delays took place in preparing the constitution which had been promised to the people. In Hanover various salutary

reforms were effected; in Wirtemberg the plan of a constitution was accepted by the representative assembly; and in Bavaria the states-general were convoked, when the king expressed his satisfaction at the establishment of a constitution calculated to promote the happiness of his people.

Early in the year a discussion arose between Denmark and Sweden, respecting the completion of the payments due from the latter power as a compensation for Norway; and an arrangement was at length made through the mediation of Lord Strangford, the British minister at Stockholm.

The protracted existence of the venerable monarch who had so long swayed the British sceptre was now drawing to a close. In the month of November the hitherto firm health of his Majesty underwent a sudden alteration; and although the dangerous symptoms were for a time removed, a general feebleness and decay ensued which portended no very distant dissolution. In the midst of the anxiety caused by this change, the public regret was excited by the loss of the Duke of Kent, who was seized with an inflammation on the lungs, and expired, after a short illness, on the 21st of January, 1820, in the 68d. year of his age. In person his royal highness was manly and noble, in stature tall, in manners dignified, yet affable. He was easy of access, temperate in habits, and in the army acquired the reputation of personal courage. In politics he took no very active part, but attached himself to the whig or popular party; and, whenever any charitable object was to be promoted, his name and presence needed little solicitation. He left an infant daughter, named Alexandrina Victoria.

On the 26th of January, eight days after the death of the Duke of Kent, his royal father expired, with

out a struggle, in the 60th year of his reign and the 82d. of his age. Over the last nine years of his life an awful veil had been drawn. In the periods of the deepest national solicitude his mind had felt no interest; in the hour of the most acute domestic feeling his eye had been tearless: almost the last time that this venerable sovereign appeared in public was on the day when his people, with one accord, devoted themselves to rejoicing in honour of his completion of a period of his reign far beyond the common term of dominion. He was blind; but, as he rode through the assembled thousands of his subjects, he was indeed the object of veneration and love. In a few weeks one of the most afflicting domestic calamities that he had ever experienced—the death of the Princess Amelia—bowed him to the dust. The anguish of the father was too great for a wounded spirit to bear: his reason forsook him, and it never returned.

No monarch ever more truly; perhaps, deserved to be called the father of his people. The example of himself and his illustrious consort in private life contributed much to the improvement of public morals. There is no station so humble, no circle so restricted, as to prevent the virtues of the good man from proving in some degree useful: in proportion, however, as the post we occupy is more elevated, the sphere of operation is of course enlarged: the personal character of the monarch can never, therefore, be a matter of indifference. In too many instances the fascination of the throne has been sufficient to throw a veil of factitious splendour over the vices of those who occupied it: princes, indeed, appeared formerly to be in some degree exempted from the obligation of those duties of decency and morality by which the million were bound; but, during the reign we have been recording,

station and rank were viewed with jealous scrutiny, and afforded little protection to the frailties of their possessors. If the example of George the Third could not make all men uniformly moral, it did all that could be done by the practice of the humblest domestic virtues, the most unaffected piety, and the most exemplary regularity. Whatever differences might occasionally exist between him and some portion of his subjects on political questions (though even on this point no English monarch ever enjoyed more fully the attachment of the people), his conduct as a husband, a father, and a master, secured the respect and attachment of all who beheld him nearly, and was approved by the moral feelings of the whole nation.

His intellectual faculties, not originally of the very highest order, were clouded by the constitutional malady which exhibited itself at rather an early period of his life; but, though the powers of his mind were by no means brilliant, he possessed a practical understanding, which, as far as ordinary affairs were concerned, commonly led him to a right judgment of men and things; and it is somewhat doubtful, in a state constituted as Great Britain is, whether extraordinary talents and energy in the sovereign would be particularly desirable. In his application to business he was regular and steady, and always appeared perfectly competent to the subjects submitted to his consideration. His education had been rather neglected; but he had cultivated a habit of continual inquiry in his intercourse with others; an intercourse which, from the frankness of his disposition, was less limited than might be supposed; and, aided by a retentive memory, he had thus acquired a variety of useful knowledge, of a description the most likely to turn to good account in the exercise of the duties of his station.

On coming to the crown he laid his commands upon the Duke of York to discontinue card-playing on a Sunday, and openly to acknowledge his obedience to the royal will in this respect. The injunction was understood and obeyed in the politest circles. He also did his utmost to suppress those pernicious assemblies, masquerades—a species of amusement which, it is to be hoped, will never be nationalized in England. The King, however, was neither an anchorite nor a recluse: he was fond of the theatre; and to his taste and judgment the amateurs of the histrionic art are indebted for most of those improvements which constitute the boast of modern days. The costume of the stage underwent a thorough reform; the licentiousness of dramatic writers was effectually curbed; and many of the scenes which Dryden and Congreve did not blush to avow would not for a moment be tolerated by an audience of the present time. In literary taste George the Third was supposed to be somewhat deficient; but he collected a noble library and, during his reign, literature certainly was not neglected. In addition to the great names of Johnson and Goldsmith, those of Cowper and Burns, Paley and Blair, Robertson and Gibbon, with innumerable others, will testify to future ages that intellectual pursuits were duly appreciated.

The graphic arts may be said to have received a character and establishment in this reign. In January, 1766, a charter of incorporation was given to a society of artists, whose exhibitions had been commenced five years before; and the royal bounty presented them with an annual donation of 100*l*. The Royal Academy was instituted some years afterwards. Previously to that period there was no such thing as an English school of art: now the connoisseur may distinguish, in our public exhibitions, portraits which compete

with the best works of Vandyke, and historical pieces that are not unworthy of the noblest times of Italy.

The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Sciences, and Commerce, in the Adelphi, originated in the year 1753, before his Majesty came to the crown. That society had proposed premiums, and had conferred bounties on pictures of merit; had brought into notice many rising artists in various branches; and had, moreover, taken steps towards encouraging the art of engraving. The establishment of engraving, however, in its more elevated classes, as a national art, and as an important branch of commerce, must be placed in the reign of George the Third; for not till then had the landscapes of Wilson, immortalized by the graver of Woollet, or the prints from British history, after West, obtained circulation throughout the world. Sir Joshua Reynolds, and Wilson, West, and Woollet, were distinguished artists, as were Strange and Hall, M^r Ardell and Earlom. Engraving also received great encouragement by the patronage which was bestowed by the King and by the public on Bartolozzi, an Italian. The tide of popular favour seemed, indeed, to be divided between that meritorious artist, an engraver, and his countryman and fellow-student, Cipriani, a painter.

George the Third was a competent judge of architecture: he amused his leisure hours with the composition of architectural designs; and the embellishments of various kinds which were executed under his patronage at Windsor will long be regarded as monuments of his munificence and taste. Sir William Chambers, and Wyatt, and Adam, have produced works which will prove to posterity that this science was not neglected.

During this reign sculpture also met great encour-

agement. Formerly the sepulchral monuments of our native artists were mere masonry, executed in a wretched taste: Rysbrach, Scheemaker, and Roubiliac, by whom Westminster Abbey was decorated with productions worthy of ancient Greece, were all foreigners; but if Bacon, and Noldekens, and Flaxman, have not fully equalled them, they have made very rapid and meritorious advances in the art.

Every branch of our domestic and commercial arts has rapidly approached towards the summit of excellence. Who can endure the gross shapes, and still grosser embossings, of the China wares, which passed for respectable in the early part of the last century, when compared with the elegant patterns that now adorn our tables? The furniture and fitting up of our houses partake of the same refinement. Formerly the originals of our cabinet works, even to the tables and chairs, were French; our mantle-pieces, our mirrors, and our pictures, were Italian. The tide has turned: our manufactures of all sorts, no less for their taste in imagination than for their skill in execution, are now admired all over the Continent.

Maritime discovery made astonishing progress in the reign of George the Third. When Jefferies was geographer to the King, that artist, however high in reputation for talent and knowledge, was obliged, by the necessity of the case, to inscribe "*parts unknown*" over a great portion of the earth's superficies: the discoveries of the immortal Cook, Carteret, King, Vancouver, and others, have reduced the *terre incognitæ* within narrow limits, which become every day more and more contracted. By those geographical discoveries our knowledge of natural history, of the vegetable as well as of the animal world, has been greatly augmented. Nor was the royal bounty con-

finer to discoveries on the face of the globe; the penetrating telescope of Dr. Herschell owes its powers and its completion to the munificence of the King; and whatever we know of the *Georgium Sidus*; of the lesser satellites of Saturn; of the celestial nebulae; and of other astronomical phenomena, must be attributed to the zeal for the advancement of science that honoured, while it gratified, the monarch by whom it was entertained.

In every branch of science and the mechanical arts this reign is distinguished by the most important discoveries. The invention of the steam-engine, and its application to every branch of manufactures, and even to the propelling vessels at sea; the improvements in cotton and other machinery; the application of gas to the purposes of light; the safety lamp, and other chymical discoveries of Sir Humphrey Davy and others; all these, and far more than these, had their origin in this reign.

Agriculture, the basis of national prosperity, experienced much royal attention, and many consequent benefits. Numerous statutes were passed for converting barren wastes into arable land, for draining marshes, for forming roads, constructing bridges, canals, ports, with other improvements, all contributing to facilitate the intercourse of the kingdom, and consequently favouring the transit of agricultural productions. The King made a point of obtaining more than a theoretical acquaintance with a subject of such vital importance. He established an experimental farm; he procured from Spain the most valuable specimens of the superior races of Merino sheep; and he allowed the breed to be disposed of to noblemen and gentlemen, who were inclined to engage in the speculation. Several letters in Young's "Annals

of Agriculture," under the signature of John Robinson, are understood to have been furnished by George the Third.

The progress of great public works in the midst of apparently interminable wars was truly surprising. In London a new mint, a new custom-house, and many other splendid structures, were erected at the national cost; whilst three bridges over the river Thames, docks and canals in every part of the kingdom, and a numberless variety of stupendous undertakings, were carried into effect by individual subscription.

In the holy work of charity, the exertions and contributions of individuals far exceeded any thing in the history of the world. Scarcely a disorder incident to the human frame existed—scarcely any calamity could befall mankind—scarcely any evil could attend our moral condition—which some effort was not made to alleviate or to remove; and, whenever these laudable objects were to be promoted, some member of the royal family invariably stepped forward to lend the aid of his name and presence. On the occurrence of any great battle most liberal subscriptions were always opened for the relief of the sufferers; and the sums which were contributed on some occasions—to the Patriotic and Waterloo funds in particular—were so abundant as even to embarrass the managers in the due appropriation of them.

But the liberal contributions of all classes were most powerfully excited by the promulgation of a system of education, under which, in a short time, the means of gratuitous instruction were so abundantly diffused throughout the island, that in many districts the establishments were capable of affording tuition to a far greater number than the whole infant popu-

lation. The system was first introduced by Joseph Lancaster, a member of the Society of Friends, under the immediate patronage of the King, who on this occasion benevolently expressed his wish that every poor child in his dominions might be able to read his Bible, and might have a Bible to read. A society was formed, in which the Duke of Sussex took an active part; *Schools for All* was their motto; and the advantages of the plan were offered to children of every religious denomination. The merits of the system, however, though first introduced in England by Lancaster, was said to be due to Dr. Bell, who had previously practised it at Madras; and a *National Society*, on his plan, was formed by the bishops and other dignitaries and members of the church, with the Duke of York at their head, the children of which were bound to conform to the ceremonies of the established religion; and thus was a laudable and zealous rivalry excited in the work of well-doing.

In an age when education was thus eagerly promoted the growth of knowledge could not be slow; and indeed in every branch, political, commercial, and literary, the progress of improvement was unparalleled. In political knowledge, the publication of the debates in both Houses of Parliament, which was first permitted in this reign, but which, though only tacitly permitted, can never now be withheld, achieved more than any single event that we can anticipate. The universal diffusion of public papers, and the spirit of political inquiry of which they may be said to be both cause and effect, have also gone far to remove the mystery in which politics were wont to be involved. The measures of princes and senates are therefore dependant, in a much less degree than formerly, upon the passions or caprices

of individuals; nor are they so perplexed by the involutions of court or party intrigues; and we are now, in the same proportion, less likely to err in attributing the public conduct of men to those simple considerations of common sense and obvious policy which are suggested by the transactions themselves. That influence behind the throne, which, early in the reign, was eloquently, but with some exaggeration, stated to be greater than the throne itself, had so diminished before its close, that the secret history of the court has now little effect on the politics of the day; and whilst the administration is controlled by a popular assembly, the proceedings of which are diurnally laid before the public, that public will be nearly as competent to judge of the motives and merits of the various measures pursued as those with whom they originate.

The sixty years which elapsed from 1440 to 1500 beheld the successive occurrence of the invention of printing, the discovery of America, and the promulgation of the doctrines of the Reformation; but since that remarkable era nothing has intervened at all comparable in moral and political importance to the revolutions of America and France. The reign of George the Third not only saw the commencement and completion of those events, but was throughout primarily, and immediately connected with the progress of them; and they unquestionably stamp it with a character of importance attaching to the administration of no one of his predecessors.

It has been popularly objected against the late King that he governed too much upon tory maxims, and was too little mindful of the principles which placed his family on the throne. It is certainly true; that the whig party was excluded throughout nearly the whole of his reign: they came in twice by the

more force of circumstances, but were each time driven out, after a few months' continuance in office, on the first pretext which enabled the court to obtain the co-operation of the people for their exclusion. The first and second Georges were compelled, by the circumstances of their situation, and the peculiar tenure by which they held the crown, sedulously to discountenance the old tory doctrines of passive obedience and divine right; but with the terror of the Pretender, it might always have been foreseen, would die the whiggism of the Brunswicks. Assuming, indeed, that the term implies the support of the popular rather than the monarchical part of our constitution, it is difficult to understand in what sense a king is expected to be a whig. The possession of power so naturally creates a disposition to preserve, and even to extend, that power, that, in attributing to princes a participation of this our common nature, we are certainly urging no objection peculiar to monarchy. The counteracting powers vested in the other parts of our political machinery prove that the operation of this principle was fully foreseen, and adequately provided for. It cannot, however, be altogether maintained that the tory ministers of George the Third have been, practically, less whigs than their immediate predecessors; government, on the contrary, has considerably abated of that high tone which it habitually held in the former reigns; and this was, indeed, to be expected when the great aristocratic families which formed the strength of the whig party ceased to be the regular organs of the will of the crown, their opponents being, both by connexion and property, of less intrinsic weight.

The increasing influence of the crown was also a subject of popular outcry throughout the reign; and

that its patronage enormously grew with the growth of our establishments and the augmentation of the revenue and expenditure is certain: but the consequent influence of government must be viewed in connexion with the great increase of wealth among those upon whom that influence had to work; for it is obvious that the same amount of patronage that would bribe a poor country would be inadequate to affect a rich one: and, although the general state of society yet presents much for the philanthropist to deplore, that Great Britain is a rich one would not be doubted if it were possible to describe her and her inhabitants as they were, in all respects, at the commencement and at the close of the reign; a period during which no country and no people that ever existed could, we are convinced, exhibit greater alterations, and, in general, greater improvements. The state of the country, as it is displayed in its agriculture, manufactures, and commerce—the state of the roads and the means of internal communication—the connexion formed with foreign countries for commercial purposes, and the means by which that was carried on, as well as the effects it produced on domestic life, manners, and pursuits—the great advances in all branches of science and arts;—these, and a thousand other points, would form the topics of comparison between Great Britain in 1760 and Great Britain in 1820.

The population of the island, which, in the former year, was little more than eight millions, was, at the latter period, little less than doubled; and if to this we add that of Ireland, the absentees in our various colonies and dependencies, and the natives of those distant possessions, upwards of sixty millions of persons now hold allegiance to the British crown.

The Christian must deeply regret that through so large a portion of the reign the different nations of the earth should have been consigned by war to the ravages and desolation of the sword. It is, however, remarkable, that, during a period in which there was scarcely a corner of the world so remote as not to be the scene of actual hostilities, Great Britain, by the terror of her navy alone, never became the seat of war, though in almost every contest she took an active part. The war by which the independence of America was established will constitute an ever-memorable epoch in the history of mankind, as forming the commencement of what may be called the political manhood of the new world; whilst the still greater convulsion which subsequently took place in France, and of which it was the direct and immediate occasion, has been felt, and will yet continue to be felt, in every quarter of the globe.

During this reign Great Britain was able not only to make the most unprecedented military exertions, but her navy proved itself, at the same time, more than a match for the whole maritime force of Europe. It destroyed or blockaded the fleets of France, Holland, Denmark, and Spain; and when Russia for a while assumed the character of an enemy, it met the fleet of Russia also with alacrity and success. At one time the ships of war at sea exceeded 600, which, added to those in ordinary, building, repairing, &c. made a grand total of more than 1100. To man this navy required a force of nearly 160,000 seamen and marines; whereas, in the war which raged when his Majesty came to the throne, 70,000 or 75,000 were thought to be the utmost that the nation could furnish. That the mercantile navy of Britain has increased in a wonderful ratio needs no other proof than the

necessity felt by our merchants for enlarging the principal ports of the kingdom by means of extensive docks and other accommodations,—as at Hull, Liverpool, London, and elsewhere. These were found to be absolutely indispensable, not only for the accommodation of the East and West India trades, but for the reception of vessels from all parts of the globe. In 1670 the amount of British shipping was 471,241 tons; and in 1812 it is stated by Mr. Colquhoun at 2,163,094 tons; to which add the shipping of Ireland, about 250,000 tons: the whole is valued by that intelligent writer at no less than 20,000,000*l*.

In the year 1760 the net customs' duties paid into the Exchequer amounted to only 1,969,934*l*. In 1815 the consolidated customs, with the annual duties and war taxes, amounted to 10,487,522*l*.; the consolidated excise, with the annual duties and war taxes, amounted to 26,562,432*l*.; and the stamps, post-office, assessed taxes, property-tax, land-tax, &c. produced 29,393,848*l*.; making a total net revenue of 66,443,802*l*.! Mr. Pitt estimated the total income of the country at 100,000,000*l*.; but, according to subsequent calculations, more accurately made, it is considered to be almost, if not quite, 150,000,000*l*.

That a great debt, whether public or private, is a great evil, cannot be denied; and the national debt, which originated in the days of King William, has certainly been most enormously increased during this reign. At the accession of Queen Anne it amounted to upwards of 16,000,000*l*. During the administration of Sir Robert Walpole it was thought, by well-informed persons, that it *might* be increased to 100,000,000*l*.; but a hundred millions was the *ne plus ultra*: there it *must* stop; and that was the point of national bankruptcy. By the war of

the American revolution, however, to the great joy of the foreign enemies and rivals of England—to the great alarm of foreigners who had property and dealings with her—and to the terror of the whole kingdom—it was augmented to the sum of 257,000,000*l.*! and, notwithstanding the operation of the sinking fund, the amount of nominal capital of the public debt now exceeds one thousand millions.

It is a fact which at first sight seems to set at defiance, for its satisfactory explanation, all the acknowledged principles of political economy, that, during the most arduous and expensive contest in which the country was engaged with revolutionary France, not only agriculture, but manufactures and commerce also, flourished in a most extraordinary degree. The main cause of this prosperity is to be sought for in the increase of the circulating medium consequent on the Bank restriction; for, whether this increase be of money or of credit, the effect is the same. “In every kingdom,” says Hume, “into which money begins to flow in greater abundance than formerly, every thing takes a new face; labour and industry gain life; the merchant becomes more enterprising, the manufacturer more diligent and skillful; and even the farmer follows his plough with greater alacrity and attention. The farmer and gardener, finding that all their commodities are taken off, apply themselves with alacrity to raising more; and, at the same time, can afford to take better and more clothes from their tradesmen, whose price is the same as formerly; and their industry only whetted by so much new gain!” The applicability of these remarks to what occurred during that part of the French war when the circulating medium was most increased might have caused it to be supposed that they were written by an accurate observer of that period.

If, then, the prosperity of the three great branches of human industry is fairly ascribable to this increase, it is evident that they would cease to improve when the increase ceased, and that a return to cash payments and to peace prices, with the cessation of those peculiar advantages which our commerce enjoyed during war, would be productive of very general distress. There is, indeed, little doubt that at the peace of 1815 the political greatness and glory of England had reached their consummation. France, our ancient rival, was completely humbled; nearly all her conquests were wrested from her; her navy and commerce were annihilated; heavy contributions were levied by foreign powers, whose troops were in possession of her capital; the ancient dynasty was restored under circumstances which would necessarily compel the adoption of a pacific policy; every colony that suited our convenience, or promised to facilitate or protect our trade, was added to the empire; and our navy had reached a superiority in skill and discipline, as well as in extent, which would enable us to deride the efforts of a hostile coalition on the part of every other maritime power in the world. This lofty eminence was not certainly attained without the most extraordinary and in some degree unnatural exertion—the expenditure being so enormous, that its continuance must have led to our ruin: the effect of this expenditure, however, in raising demand (though the means were in a great measure derived from the capital, and not the income, of the nation), was not the less favourable to commerce while it lasted; and the system of expending so many millions extraordinary, of money either borrowed or raised by the war-taxes, had continued so long, that the supply had formed and adapted itself to the consumption thus occasioned; and the

sudden failure of so extensive a source of demand was, of course, felt in proportion.

That the consciousness of being in a state of retrogression should have spread a gloom over the concluding years of the reign cannot be matter of surprise; but, if every thing could recede in its due proportion, relief would be certain, and not very distant. One portion of the public expenditure, however, admitted of so little retrenchment as to baffle the wisdom and power of Parliament: whilst the prices of agricultural produce and of manufactures were gradually receding towards the point from which they started at the French revolution, the large sum annually payable for interest on the national debt not only afforded slender scope for reduction, but became the more difficult to be raised as the value of produce declined. From the difficulties, however, which have been overcome, from the triumphs which have been enjoyed, the genuine patriot must feel warranted, amidst a season of temporary gloom, in looking forward to bright and golden times, bearing in mind that the progress of knowledge, which cannot now be impeded, must favour the pursuits of peace, and infuse a hatred of war; and that, after the career of glory has been so honourably run by Great Britain, her rulers are more than ever bound, now that her swords are turned into ploughshares, and her spears into pruning-hooks, to cultivate peace on earth, and good will towards men.

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- , sir Stapleton, created lord Combermere, iv. 242.
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- , Ernest Augustus, duke of, son of George III. advocates the war with France, iii. 344.
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- Custine*, general, reduces several cities, ii. 415; charged with maintaining a secret correspondence with the enemy, and executed, iii. 7.
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- Czernicheff*, general, visits London, iv. 238.
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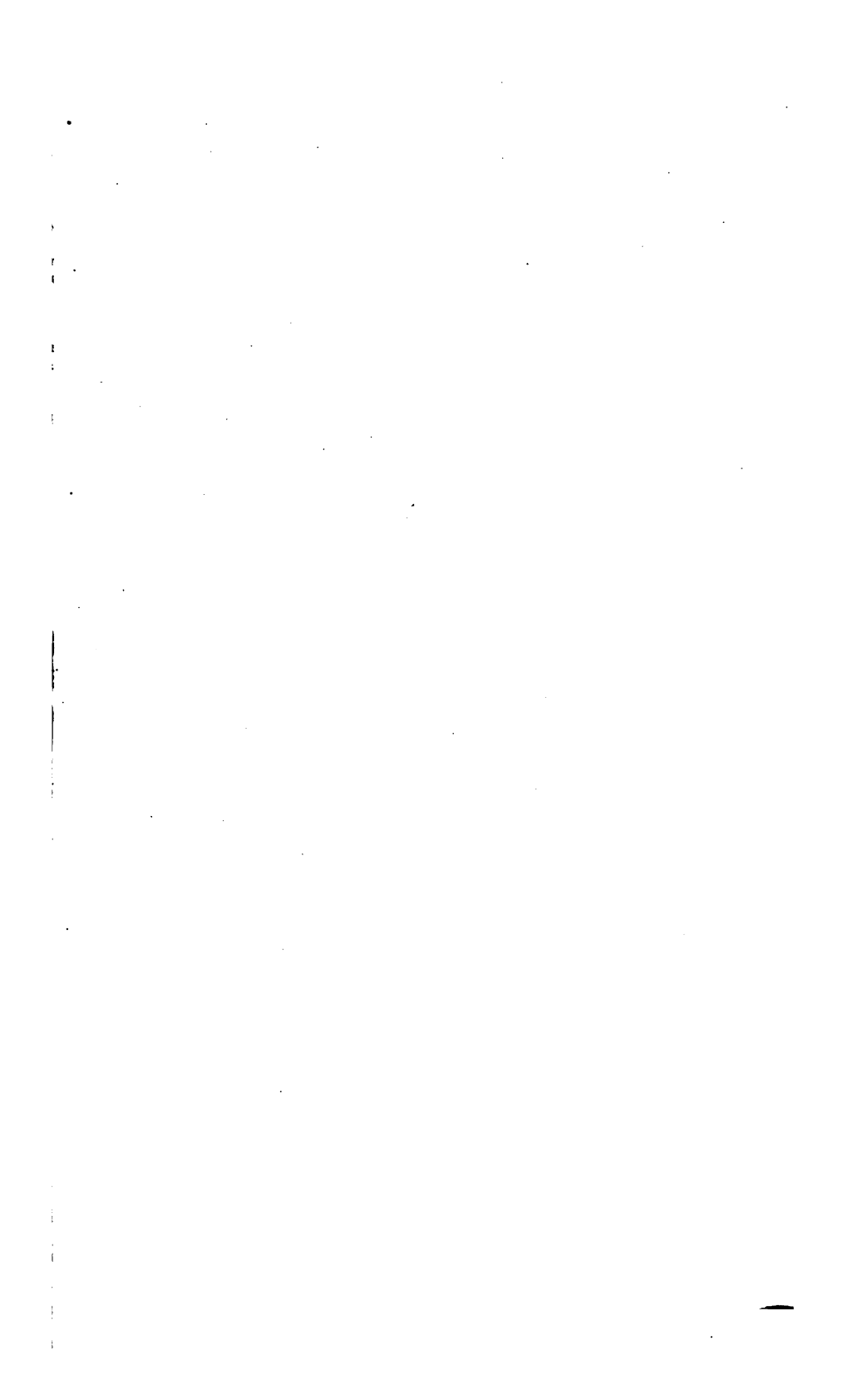
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THE END.





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